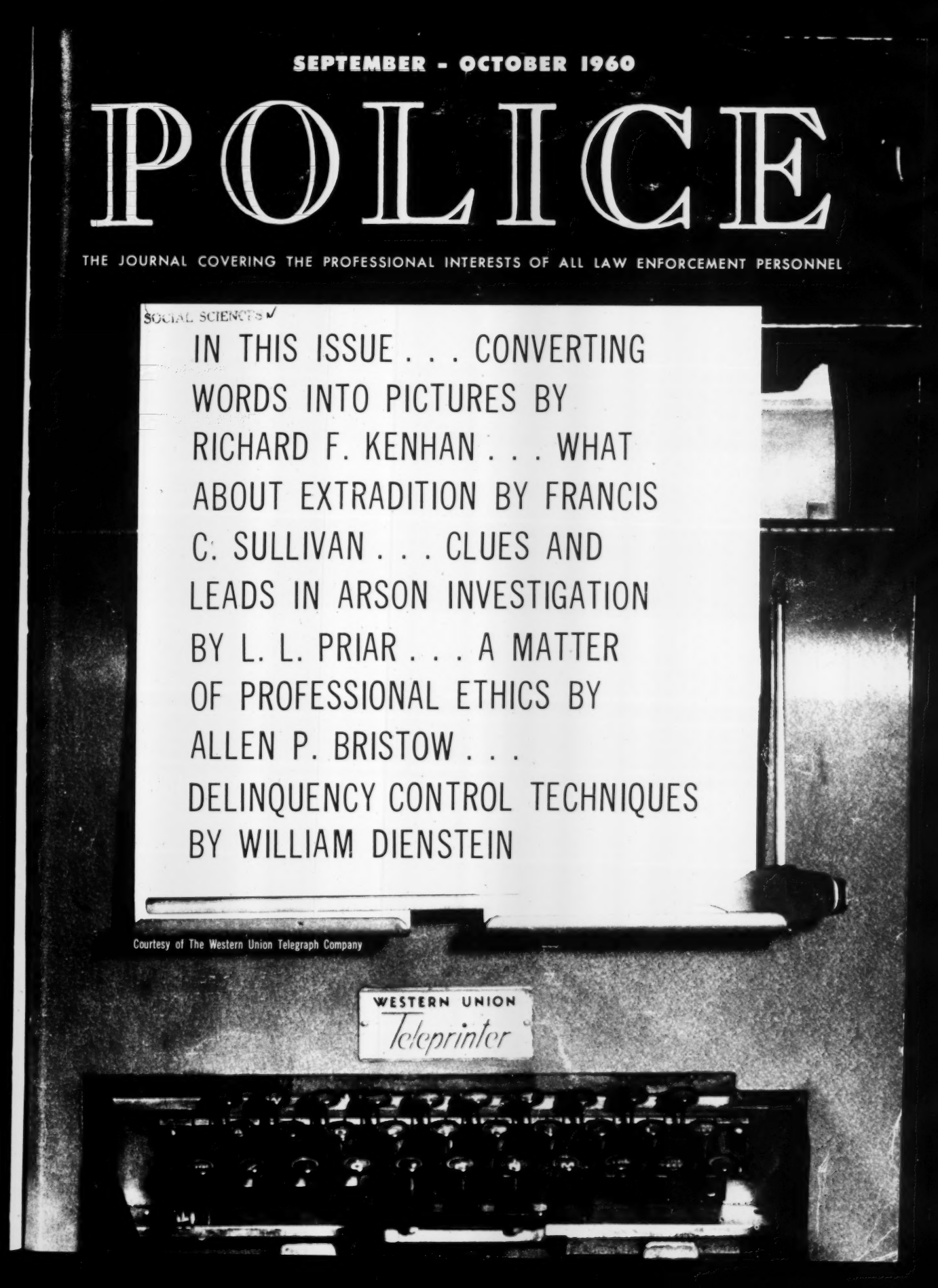
SEPTEMBER - OCTOBER 1960

POLICE

THE JOURNAL COVERING THE PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS OF ALL LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL

SOCIAL SCIENCES ✓

IN THIS ISSUE . . . CONVERTING WORDS INTO PICTURES BY RICHARD F. KENHAN . . . WHAT ABOUT EXTRADITION BY FRANCIS C. SULLIVAN . . . CLUES AND LEADS IN ARSON INVESTIGATION BY L. L. PRIAR . . . A MATTER OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS BY ALLEN P. BRISTOW . . . DELINQUENCY CONTROL TECHNIQUES BY WILLIAM DIENSTEIN



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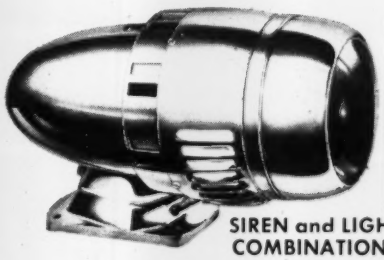

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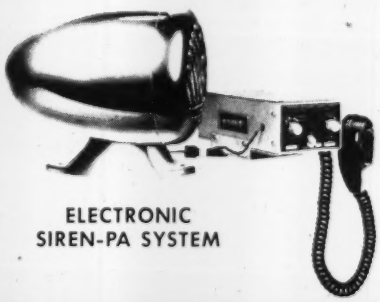

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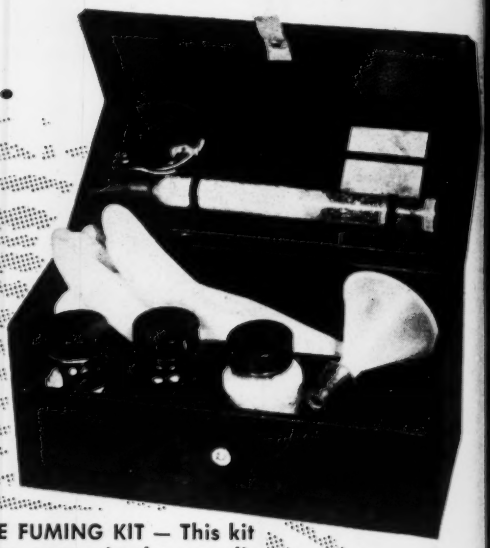

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Officer Continuation Training

By A. Robert Matt

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author holds the B. A. Degree in Police Administration from Indiana University, and has completed one year of preparation in the Law School. He was a Trooper in the Indiana State Police from 1952 to 1955; Alumni Field Secretary for Indiana University from 1955 to 1958, at which time he was appointed Assistant Director of the Center for Police Training at that institution. This is the third in a series of articles concerned with departmental police training programs. The first two—*THE MOST IMPORTANT MAN *and* LET'S START A POLICE TRAINING PROGRAM, *appeared in previous issues of POLICE.*

LET'S assume that you, as the Police Training Officer for your Department, have been able to sell the need for a minimum course of training for every man in your department. It doesn't make any difference whether it has been an eighty hour course or a four hundred hour course. The number of hours will have been dictated by the size and needs of the individual agency.

Let's further assume that you have successfully completed the program. Every officer has received desired minimum fundamental training. You have learned a great deal from this particular course as far as your own training techniques are concerned. You are already looking forward to the next session of similar training where you will fully utilize the experience of your first school. A great deal of time and thought can and will be devoted to reflecting on the last school and planning for the next. Can you stop here? Can you sit back and bask in the glory of having just completed a highly successful training session? The answer is obviously NO! To coin a phrase, if you are a "thinking man" you will quickly see that your headaches are just beginning.

Officer Continuation Training is your next vital problem. It stands to reason that when the criminal element of this country devotes a lifetime developing techniques to outwit law enforcement officers, that law enforcement people must spend a certain amount of time keeping abreast of the many new ideas and techniques introduced into policing every day. A constructive "spirit of larceny" must be developed by the "PTO." New ideas can be advantageously put to use from industry and other vocational areas. This "spirit of constructive larceny does not advocate plagiarism. It merely means that no department should be so narrow or inbred as to not look outside its own scope for help and new ideas.

The problem of Officer Continuation Training and what should be taught can be broken down into three distinct areas: New Laws, Ideas and Techniques; Repeat Information; Manual Skills. Let's look at the first area and examine it in detail.

NEW LAWS, IDEAS AND TECHNIQUES

When expanding this area the most important point to consider is new laws. Every officer should constantly be up to date on the new laws or ordinances in his jurisdiction. Nothing is more embarrassing to a police department than to receive publicity about an individual officer's lack of knowledge concerning the law. For that matter nothing is more embarrassing or humiliating to the individual concerned. Under the law, every man is presumed to know the law. We know this is not literally true, but it is true that the police officer on the beat should know more about the law, as it affects his work, than should the average layman. Policemen are many times asked specific questions about old and new laws. They must be ready to answer with factual and accurate information.

The next point to consider is new ideas. To keep up with the changing world new ideas must be passed on to the men. Better ways to communicate up and down the chain of command and from division to division must be passed along to the men. New ideas and ways of developing efficiency can be solicited and considered from the men who must use them. It's your responsibility to look for, find, try out, and pass along new ideas to your departmental personnel. Your Chief cannot take this responsibility, only you can pass on your suggestions to him as being good or bad for the entire department.

New techniques and ways of doing things is the next and last point in this area. For example you might decide that one man patrol cars, as opposed to two man patrol cars, are better and more efficient for your department. This is a real "hot potato." The Chief might be reluctant to buy this idea and the men might be against even trying the technique out. If so—you've got a selling problem and if you successfully make the sale you've got a training problem. This example of one man vs. two man motorized patrols is an extreme example. The introduction of a new technique or way of doing something might consist of teaching the men how to fill out a new accident form or a new uniform traffic ticket. Regardless of whether the problem be extreme or relatively simple the problem is the same. The idea must

Address: A Robert Matt, Assistant Director, Center for Police Training, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Newest speed timing devices being used in a refresher school to teach Troopers the technique of operating the latest in speed timing equipment. Photo courtesy Indiana State Police Public Relations Division.

be sold to the greatest majority of the men possible and the technique must be taught.

In considering the three points in this area the question immediately arises as to how the men can be best supplied with the information. If your department is a federal or state agency, you might consider setting up a series of two or three day sessions shortly after Congress or your General Assembly terminates to discuss new laws. This type of training course is desirable from two standpoints. It is not necessary to call all of the men in at one time. You and I both know this is impossible. Secondly, it gives you an opportunity to go over some of the existing laws on a refresher basis.

Another way of accomplishing this purpose is by spending five or ten minutes each day at roll call discussing new laws. The information is reduced to paper and then discussed after the written order has been passed out to the men. The roll call method of training is simple to execute, particularly if your jurisdiction is municipal in nature and your new laws are, in some cases, the result of city council action. New laws and ordinances are constantly resulting from Council action and consequently cannot be passed out to the men in one big package. The roll call method of passing along information is probably the easiest way of acquainting men with new ideas and techniques to be used in their work. A word of caution is in order at this point. Remember, your job of selling does not end with the Chief and other "high level Brass." You must sell the men! It is not good human relations to say that this is the way it will be done in the future without advising the "Indians" why it is a good idea or technique, how it will result in better police service to the public, and how it will benefit the individual officer. The morale of the men must always be considered. Nothing was ever gained by ramming new ways of doing things down an individual's throat without first giving him an opportunity to savor it.

REPEAT INFORMATION

Such things as departmental policy, rules and regulations come within the realm of repeat information. These are the things that vitally affect the efficiency of the department. No amount of repetition can be termed bad in this area. To discuss these topics only in your first training courses and then forget them is fatal. The men must constantly be aware of their responsibilities and only repetition on these verbal points can produce

An Indiana State Police F/Sgt. demonstrating the proper way to splint a broken leg in a recruit school. Photo Courtesy Indiana State Police Public Relations Division.

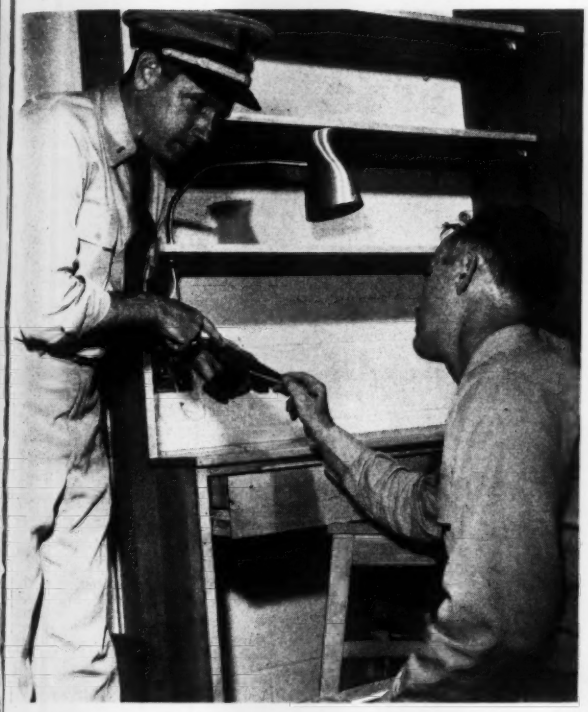
this constant awareness on the part of the individual. This is not a manual skill. This is a part of knowledge learned only in a verbal manner. Nevertheless it is important to the welfare of the department. Your imagination will bring to mind other points that must necessarily be covered in this manner.

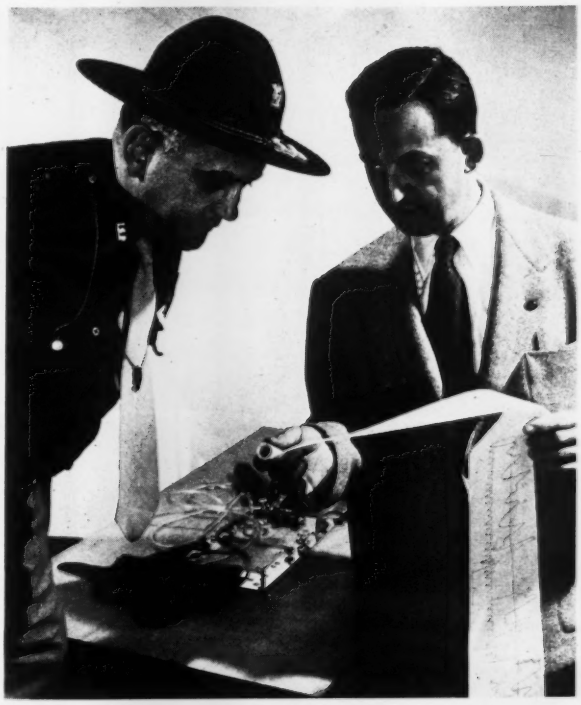
Here again, two or three day refresher courses or roll call training will be most helpful in reminding the men of their individual responsibility. Human relations again has a bearing on the training method. You cannot do a whole lot to make the repeat information any more interesting to the people to whom it is aimed. There will always be those men who are quite capable and interested in their work. They won't have to be reminded more than once of their responsibilities. On the other hand, they cannot be singled out as being exempt from this particular type of training on an inservice basis. This is a human relations problem that you must recognize. You may go a little bit deeper into the area and seek advise from different division heads and then design refresher courses for certain groups. This is not only a more expeditious training technique, but it helps create and hold audience interest. Small group prestige can be developed by pointing the refresher course to detectives, juvenile officers, sergeants or some other specific group. The point is simply that you must be constantly aware of your responsibility to make a well trained department and yet make the training enjoyable, informative, helpful and interesting to the men.

MANUAL SKILLS

It's practically impossible to offer or devise roll call training in this area because of the time element involved. More than five or ten minutes is required to continue training in a mechanical skill involving, for the most part, more physical effort than mental effort. Techniques and mechanics of arrest, firearms training, road blocks, manual traffic control, self defense tactics, search and seizure, and other directly related law enforcement physical skills fall into this area. You might want to consider the possibility of introducing training in certain other techniques, not directly involving strict law enforcement techniques, but nevertheless necessary adjuncts to well-rounded law enforcement training, such as, first aid, spelling, speech training and techniques, military courtesy, typing, surveillances, and transportation.

Two, three or even five day refresher courses are the best vehicle for executing training in this area. The classes can consist of a fraction of the total complement of personnel without regard to rank or division. This will work in refresher firearms training but will not





work too well in speech training. Embarrassment of rank is the obvious reason. Your big decision will then be, who should be in the class and how much time should be devoted to each subject? Should you spend five days a year on one subject, should you combine several subjects, or should you allot one day per month to a given subject? Each case is individual in nature. It is your responsibility to make these decisions. Your superior officers are looking to you for recommendations in the area of training and how it can benefit the department.

Look about you to other agencies for help and training courses. Don't permit yourself the luxury of becoming an egotist about your own programs. There is a lot of fine work being done by several Universities throughout the country. In some instances they have facilities and instructors that are not readily available to you in a police department. On the other hand, there are instances of training needs that cannot be duplicated outside a police department. The point is that you should "beg, borrow, steal or pay for" help and new ideas wherever they are to be found.

Volumes could be written on all the problems and techniques of training. However, with a few fundamental ideas and some serious thought you can have a fine nucleus of officer continuation training courses designed. In a short period of time you will see results from those courses in the disguise of increased efficiency, better police service to the public, higher morale, etc., on down the line. Recognition of these facts by you are the big dividends of being THE MOST IMPORTANT MAN IN POLICING TODAY. ★★★

(Upper left) Two United States Coast Guard Lieutenants discussing a murder weapon found at the scene of a murder in a crime scene investigation in a law enforcement school for Coast Guard Officers. The School was operated by the Center for Police Training. Photo courtesy Indiana University News Bureau.

(Upper right) Professor Robert F. Borkenstein, Director Indiana University Center for Police Training, discussing lie detector operation with Indiana State Police Officer in an advanced school for lie detector operators. Photo courtesy Indiana State Police Public Relations Division.

(Lower) Techniques and mechanics of arrest being taught by an Indiana State Police Lt. Photo courtesy Indiana State Police Public Relations Division.

A Practical Means for Routine Approximation Of the Time of Recent Death*

By C. C. Lushbaugh, M.D., Jesse Rose and Dean Wilson

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. C. C. Lushbaugh is pathologist at the Los Alamos Medical Center and a staff member in experimental pathology, Health Division of the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico. A native of Kentucky, he was raised in Cincinnati, Ohio, obtained a Ph.D. (in pathology) and his M.D. from the University of Chicago in 1942 and 1948, and served as Assistant Professor of Pathology there from 1945 to 1949 in the Albert Merritt Billings Memorial Hospital of the University of Chicago Clinics. His research work has been devoted chiefly to pathology of chemical poisonings and radiation damage, and to diagnostic use of radioisotopes in medicine. He has been the unofficial medical examiner for Los Alamos County for eleven years as an outlet for his avocational interest in forensic medicine, which this article reflects.*

Mr. Jesse Rose is Chief of Police at Los Alamos, New Mexico. He first entered law enforcement in 1941 with the U. S. Border Patrol in El Paso, Texas. During World War II, he served with the U. S. Navy Shore Patrol. He has served over twelve years with the Los Alamos Police Department and was a member of the 49th session of the FBI National Academy. In 1954, he attended the first institute on "Science in Law Enforcement" at the Law-Medicine Center, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. Chief Rose is a delegate from the State of New Mexico to the 1960 Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Youth and Children and is a member of the IACP.

Dean Wilson, formerly of Sherwood and Portland, Oregon, served in military intelligence and radio communication units, U. S. Army during the second World War. He was appointed to the newly formed AEC Security Service in September 1947, and assigned to the Los Alamos Police Department where he rose through the ranks to Lieutenant and Chief of the Criminal Investigation and Identification Bureau. Before this article was published, he transferred to the U. S. Civil Service Commission as Investigator and is presently assigned at Los Alamos, New Mexico.

LAW enforcement officers have needed a simple, accurate means for routinely determining the time of an unwitnessed or unexplained death. Expert medical opinion as to the time of death is commonly based upon rigor mortis, post-mortem lividity, abdominal discoloration, odors, gastric digestion, stopped watches, and overheard nonexpert opinions. As a result, these approximations are more often than not a hindrance in the investigation, and little reliance can be placed upon them. If, however, the time of death is known accurately and used along with the necropsy findings, natural death, death from neglect, accident, suicide, or homicide can then be differentiated.

The fact that bodies of warm-blooded animals and humans give off heat and begin to cool after death is well known. Numerous studies in man, showing that the rate of this heat loss after death is fairly constant, have led to use of an average rate of heat loss of 1.5 to 1.6 degrees Fahrenheit per hour as a means of determining the time of death.[1] This rate, however, obviously depends upon: the surface area of the body, amount of clothing, environmental temperature, convection of heat as augmented by wind currents, relative humidity, and numerous other factors which may be unknown. These variable factors, all capable of altering this "normal" rate of cooling, make the method too inaccurate to be used with confidence in post-mortem investigations in major crimes, but there appears to be no other available objective means of making such an estimate. The obvious approach to this problem would seem to be an expanded formula that can be modified by using these various factors, where known, so that the actual rate of temperature loss can be determined for each specific situation.

A modern study of this problem was made, from this point of view, in India with executed criminals. Temperatures and values for these factors were inserted into a combined formula expressive of radiative, convective, and conductive cooling. Time of death was then determined mathematically, and the answer was found to be within thirty to forty-five minutes of its actual occurrence. Few police departments, however, can boast of mathematicians and scientists of sufficient training to collect such data and solve the necessary formulas with enough speed to help "on-the-spot" investigations.

With the electrical direct-reading thermometer described here, we have been able to develop a method for determining accurately the time of death. This method

*Work done under the auspices of the AEC.

[1]In this rule of thumb method, the rectal temperature of the corpse is subtracted from 37 to 37.6 degrees Centigrade. The difference is then divided by 1.5 or 1.6. The answer is considered the number of hours elapsed between death and time of obtaining the rectal temperature.

Address: Doctor C. C. Lushbaugh, Health Division, Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico.

Figure 1. Simplified Single Thermistor Bridge Thermometer.

Part Number	*Description*
R-1 Resistor	1K variable wire wound
R-2 Resistor	3K fixed*
R-3 Resistor	3K fixed*
R-4 Resistor	200 ohms fixed*
R-5 Resistor	2.6K fixed*
R-6 Resistor	1K fixed*
R-7 Resistor	5K fixed*
R-8 Resistor	1.5K variable wire wound
BT-1 Battery	flashlight, 1½v., size D
M-1 Meter	0 to 50 microamperes, 4½ inches, resistance 1800 approximately
S-1 Switch	toggle, D.P.D.T.
S-2 Switch	wafer, nonshorting, 2-pole, 2- to 5-position
Thermistors	carbolloy, 5000 at 25° ± 10%

*Use resistors with low temperature coefficients like W. W. or borocarbons.

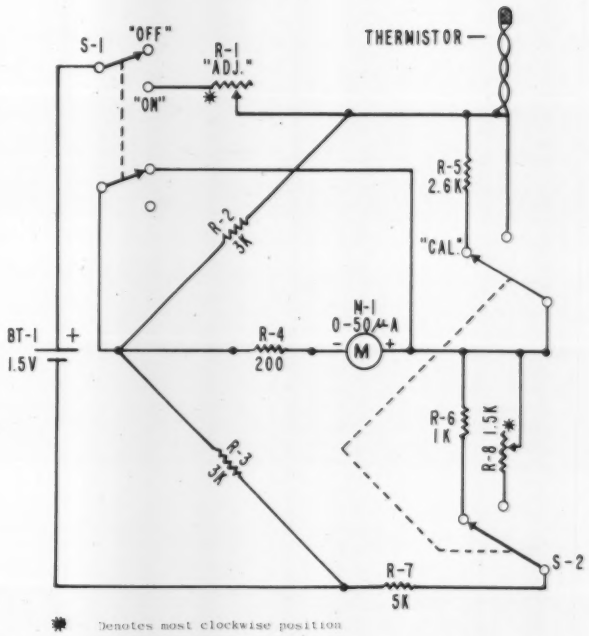


Figure 2. Front view of thermistor bridge thermometer showing Fahrenheit and Centigrade scales and switch for choosing one of four color-coded thermistor probes (actual size).

Figure 3. Rear view of thermistor bridge thermometer. One of the color-coded thermistor probes has been removed from its receptacle (actual size).

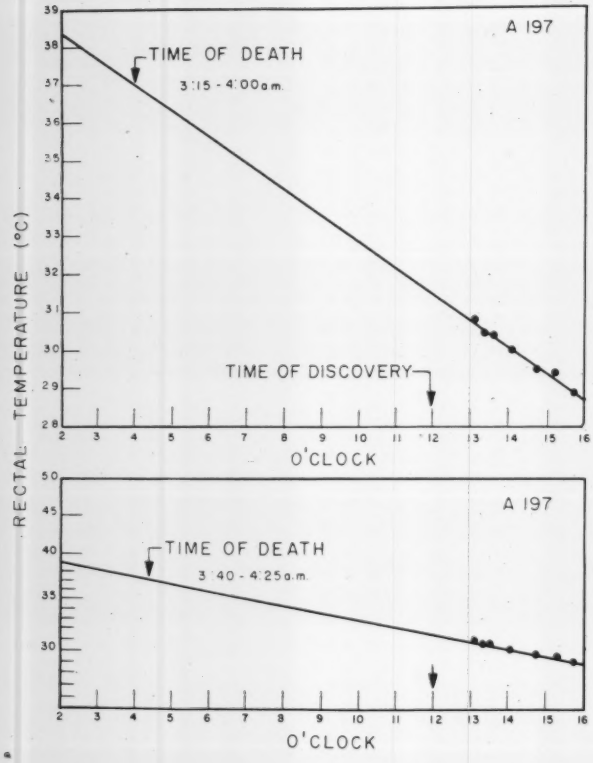


Figure 4. Comparison of estimations of time of death in an actual case, using arithmetic and semilogarithmic graph paper as described in the text.

is simple and does not require the help of a physician. The various techniques combined in this method are so commonly used in their particular fields that no attempt is made here to credit their origins.

THE METHOD

The method employs an electrical thermometer which uses a thermistor on the end of a plasticized probe to measure changes in temperature. Such thermometers are commercially available but can be constructed by the amateur radio hobbyist on the police force when funds are limited. A schematic diagram is shown in Figure I for this purpose.

The unit is self-contained, deriving its power from a single flashlight cell. The circuit constants used are for a temperature range of 20 to 40 degrees Centigrade (68 to 104 degrees Fahrenheit) but in cold climates, where body temperatures can be expected to approach freezing quickly, the range should be lowered to 9 degrees Centigrade (41 degrees Fahrenheit). The basic circuit is a bridge operated off-balance. Three arms of the bridge are fixed by resistors while the thermistor in the probe forms the variable arm, its resistance varying inversely with temperature. It is constructed so that at 20 degrees Centigrade the bridge is in balance and the meter is in the zero position (Figure 2). As the temperature of the thermistor in the circuit is raised its resistance decreases and the meter reads up-scale, full-scale being the resistance of the thermistor at 40 degrees Centigrade. A variable resistor in the circuit is provided to compensate for battery voltage drop with age so that adjustment can be made to full-scale at all times. The operational model shown in Figures 2 and 3 has four thermistor probes (marked yellow, blue, brown, and green) but usually only one would be required. Ten-foot long wire leads connect the thermistor probe (Figure 3) with the instrument (5 inches x 5 inches x 3 inches in size) so that temperature measurements can be made at a distance from the body, thus preventing interference with other investigations in its vicinity. The 4-inch long probe is inserted into the rectum of the deceased as deeply as possible. The insertion can be made by touch through a small slit made in the clothes without disturbing them, the position of the body, or other adjacent objects. Under these circumstances, temperature measurements can be begun at once before environmental factors affecting heat loss are modified by the investigation itself. The officer then reads and records the temperatures shown on the meter at intervals before the body is removed. Three readings at fifteen-minute intervals are the minimum needed for a rough determination. Additional observations over an hour or more improve the accuracy of the method.

Determination of time of death is then made graphically. A straight line is drawn to fit the three or more points representing the temperature readings and times when they were obtained. Arithmetic graph paper has been found easier to use for this purpose than the semilogarithmic type. The temperature scale can be spread apart as needed on arithmetic paper so that readings taken close together can be plotted more easily and accurately by untrained persons. It is theoretically more accurate to use the semilogarithmic plot, but its use is only justified where the nature of the case demands utmost precision in this determination.

In Figure 4 an actual graphic determination of time of a death is shown using the two different kinds of graph paper. Straight lines have been drawn through the points and extended backward in time. The arithmetic line reached the 37 degree Centigrade point at 4:00 A.M. and the semilogarithmic one at 4:25 A.M. The time of death is stated in each study as 3:15 to 4:00 A.M. and 3:40 to 4:25 A.M., because there is about a forty-five-minute lag in time before the rectal temperature begins to fall after death. This lag can be compensated for automatically by using 37.6 degrees Centigrade (99.6 degrees Fahrenheit) as the temperature at time of death. The line, therefore, is drawn until it crosses this point instead of 37 degrees Centigrade. Time of death is then the time on the graph when the rectal temperature was 37.6 degrees Centigrade. Both graphs in Figure 4 show that death occurred in this case eight and one-half to nine hours

before the body was found. The apparent error of twenty-five minutes to one hour in these graphic approximations was insignificant in this case, compared to the opinion of the examining physician that, on the basis of rigor mortis, lividity, and decomposition, death had occurred "about twenty-four hours previously." Subsequent investigations showed that the man had been seen alive at 2300 hours (thirteen hours before discovery).

During the past five years, "on-the-spot" determinations of time of death by this method have agreed with testimony subsequently found and verified in all cases, except those due to gun-shot wounds of the head. In these cases, death is commonly accompanied by a fever as high as 42 degrees Centigrade or 108 degrees Fahrenheit. We have found that a temperature of 39.4 degrees Centigrade (102.9 degrees Fahrenheit) at death, instead of 99.6 degrees Fahrenheit (37.6 degrees Centigrade), gives in general the best agreement with known facts in cases of death from gun-shot wounds of the head. For example, when the line drawn through the plotted temperature versus time data is extrapolated backward, it is continued past the normal temperature point until it crosses the 102.9-degree Fahrenheit (39.4-degree Centigrade) point. In our experience, this procedure adds two and one-half hours to the interval between time of death and discovery of the body as ordinarily determined, and should be done routinely in cases with such wounds.

The temperature method of determining time of death works best when the interval between time of death and discovery is the smallest. It has worked for us with more than necessary precision up to eighteen hours after death. It can be used at most up to twenty-four to thirty-six hours after death, because it takes only thirty-six to forty-eight hours for the body to reach thermal equilibrium with its environment. When used in conjunction with other evidence, as such determinations must always be, in our experience time of death as determined by this method has been a helpful factor up through the first twenty-four hours. Its reliability at longer times can only be determined by a thorough necropsy determination of cause of death.

Armed with facts concerning the *cause* and *time* of death, nevertheless, it is necessary to obtain expert medical opinion concerning the length of time that probably elapsed between infliction of the trauma and time of death. Only when this interval is nonexistent, as in cases of instantaneous death, can time of death and time of a crime be considered identical.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge the support received in this project from Mr. H. Dean Gulnac of the electronics group of the Physics Division; the Health Division of the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory; the Los Alamos Medical Center; the Los Alamos Police Department; the Health and Safety Branch LAFO and the AEC. ★★★

POLICE CADET SYSTEM GETS UNDER WAY

Police Commissioner Stephen P. Kennedy of the New York City Police Department announced recently that one thousand young college men applied for the position of Police Cadet and took a written examination on Saturday morning, June 25th, at the Baruch School of Business and Public Administration of City College, Lexington Avenue and 23rd Street.

The young college men will be competing for 250 new part-time positions in the Police Department which will enable those selected, to work in non-police duties outside their college sessions.

Commissioner Kennedy stated that the new program would combine attendance at college with part-time non-police work and training in preparation for careers in the Police Department.

"The Police Cadet program offers, for the first time in our city's history, the young New Yorker a unique and wonderful opportunity to begin a career in law enforcement while still attending college. We hope it helps in the development of the best type of police officer and thus brings greater security to the people of this city."

Cadets may select a work week ranging from twenty to thirty-five hours, depending upon the requirements of their college attendance. The work week will include a three-hour weekly training session at the Police Academy.

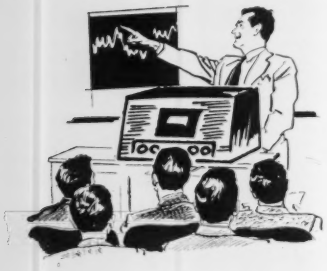
In their part-time work, the pay for which will be $1.60 per hour, the cadets will be assigned to such duties as filing and searching records, typing, preparation of charts and simple statistical reports, telephone service, shorthand transcriptions, etc. On-the-job training will be given for these positions. The Police Academy training will also cover police procedures and related laws as well as general business subjects and office procedures.

Cadets must be seventeen and under twenty on July 1st, 1960. They must be five feet, eight inches in height with weight in proportion. Allowance will be made for anticipated growth. 20/30 vision, uncorrected, is required. Applicants must have good moral character, be single and previously unmarried, a citizen and a resident of New York City for three years prior to appointment.

Applicants must have completed three and a half years of high school at the time of filing the application and have graduated from an accredited four year high school prior to appointment. The applicant must meet his selected college's entrance requirements, and file for the take College Entrance Board examinations, if required for admission.

This is the first group of candidates to be processed for the new position which was launched this year for two purposes: —to interest young men in law enforcement as a career and to enable patrolmen now doing non-police but necessary clerical work to be returned to patrol. The Cadets will be used in Headquarter's offices for filing, typing and the answering of telephones and will begin work with the opening of the Fall college term.

The applicants for the position of Cadet includes 75 young men who are now attending on plan to attend City College; 64 from Brooklyn Colleg.e 58 from St. John's University, 48 from Fordham University, 35 from the New York City Community College, 34 from St. Francis University, 28 from New York University, 25 from Iona, 24 from Manhattan, 22 from Long Island University and 20 each from Queens and Pace Colleges. In addition, other applicants also plan to attend 22 other accredited colleges in the Metropolitan area. The average age of the applicant for the position of Police Cadet is 18½. The position is open to young men between 17 and 20 who intend to file for the police examination and become members of the force.



Supervision—A Major Problem For Police Departments

DEVELOPING THE UNDERSTUDY

By Robert L. Brunton

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Since June, 1956, the author has been assistant director of the International City Managers' Association. Prior to that time he was for seven years city manager of Milton-Freewater, Oregon, and assistant manager in Minot, North Dakota. In his present position he also serves as the managing director of the Institute for Training in Municipal Administration which provides a series of in-service correspondence courses in which more than 2,000 officials and employees enroll each year. He attended the Newark College of Engineering, West Virginia University, Colorado University, and the University of Chicago. Mr. Brunton is co-author of the latest textbook in the Institute's training program entitled "Management Practices for Smaller Cities." He also teaches courses in Modern Views of Management Theory and Principles, Work Management, and Applications of Psychology in Management at The Center for Program in Government Administration at the University of Chicago.*

The photographs used in this article are taken from the Institute's film strip used in connection with its course "Supervisory Methods in Municipal Administration." The actors are all regular members of the Highland Park, Illinois, police department.

THE police executive must deal with people — his superiors, his subordinates, and the general public. His effectiveness, to a greater extent today than ever before, depends on his knowledge and use of supervisory talents and skills.

In many respects, the job of the desk sergeant is similar to that of a chief clerk in a private corporation. But as the police sergeant well knows, he has many problems never faced by his civilian counterpart. For example, the desk sergeant must deal with citizens, many of whom, under the circumstances, are hostile to police, to the authority their uniforms represent, and thus to the sergeant personally. It would be hard to find a comparable situation in private employment.

The feature that makes the work of the desk sergeant and chief office clerk similar is the fact that they exercise supervision. The manager's primary function is achievement of over-all organizational goals. The supervisor, on the other hand, must exercise face-to-face leadership of people. He is the man who converts orders into action. His attitudes toward the responsibilities inherent in supervision determine whether his subordinates are well trained. While he too is concerned with the use of other resources, his major concern is with people.

To some extent, even top level administrators exercise supervision of the functions of their personal staff. But the middle-management supervisor is unique. He is at one and the same time a representative of management and a direct associate of his subordinates to whom he holds certain loyalties. These loyalties are often even more pronounced in police organizations. It has long been recognized that supervision in municipal government offers many challenges and that the work of all city hall supervisors is complex and demanding, but until recently there was little available in supervisory training material or instruction in new developments, techniques, attitudes, and processes for municipal executives responsible for the work of others.

The International City Managers' Association, which for the past twenty-six years has conducted the Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, moved last year to fill in this gap in the middle management level. The result was a course in Supervisory Methods in Municipal Administration. ICMA found that many of the anxieties and frustrations to which the municipal supervisor is subject are also characteristic of the job at a similar level in private industry. For example, the complete detailed reports of most police departments are subject to analysis to determine the scope of a specific problem (as in juvenile delinquency) and where efforts should be directed to cope with this problem. Private industry, likewise, is characterized by detailed production, sales, and marketing reports and analysis. ICMA found significant differences, however, between municipal administration and private business management. One example is the acute and peculiar problem of relations with the citizenry which permeates nearly all of the function of the municipal supervisor and his work group, as in the case of the police desk sergeant.

This is not to say that supervisory techniques used in business and industry are not applicable in conduct-

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"I'm too busy to train men . . ."

"They get paid to do their job . . ."

"Training is one of my most important functions . . ."

"When the men are well trained, they can teach each other. In the long run my job is easier . . ."

ing city hall business. To the contrary, the disciplines of personnel administration, budgeting, and purchasing represent only a few areas in which private experience and research have proved invaluable. Thus, before the supervisor in a municipal government can approach his own immediate problems with sophistication, he must be aware of the larger context in which supervision occurs.[1]

First the municipal supervisor must recognize that government is not a closed system or a monastery isolated from the world around it. Society as a whole has influenced supervision, and five trends complicating the work of the supervisor have been discernable in the last fifty years.

1. Size and Its Effect. Our cities are growing larger; so are our police organizations. But size seems to create rigidity in organizational processes. There is a day-to-day tendency to occupy one's self with the means rather than the end. A supervisor may find that his initiative and discretion are restrained by the very bigness of this organization. For example, it would seem advisable for police department supervisors to encourage their subordinates to take advantage of opportunities to advance their police careers. Yet studies in other fields have shown that where advancement promises are held out to the subordinates, and the supervisor himself cannot deliver, the effect is detrimental to the interests of the organization.

2. Specialization. Police work is becoming specialized. James A. Norton, Director of the Cleveland Metropolitan Services Commission, recently summed up the growth of the police profession this way:

"Who can be a good policeman? Where I grew up we used to look around and find a man who liked to stand around on the corner and talk. We didn't require a cigar, but I don't remember a policeman without one. Now, even in my home town, a policeman has to know how to take fingerprints and operate his radio set. In the cities in a metropolitan area, the marshall of my home town would be lost. Today, even directing traffic is a skill."[2]

The trend toward specialization has very serious implications for the supervisor. But perhaps the most important is that it tends to narrow the potential supervisor, who should have broad experience and background. In some ways municipal governments have been less guilty than other organizations in forcing people into narrow nitches. For example, police departments customarily have a rotational policy which insures that all prospective supervisors will have a

wide range of experience. But, in general, it is acknowledged that most people are not as well equipped, in terms of background, as they might be for supervisory responsibilities.

3. Full Employment. It is difficult to find fault with the the existence of full employment conditions. But it does create problems for all supervisors. It permits a high degree of occupational mobility, and people are less willing to continue employment in which pronounced disadvantages exist. Certainly where there is a high resignation rate among young patrolmen, many factors such as pay and hours may be involved. But ineffective supervision may also be present.

Full employment also means that the supervisor must work with people of varying degrees of experience and intelligence. Again, because most police departments have minimum intelligence and physical requirements the lower extremes are avoided among police personnel. But where it is hard to get men to apply, there may well be a tendency to lower the standards merely in order to fill the ranks.

Finally, full employment places a premium on manpower. A supervisor cannot be extravagant in manpower usage and make up for it by being effective in other things such as personal leadership. Ability to use people wisely and well is an absolute necessity in an era of full employment.

4. Growing Emphasis on the Group. Terms like "social environment" may have nebulous meaning to the average police executive. But sociologists have demonstrated that our society has placed great stress on full participation of a person in the activities of a group of which he is a part. This concept has been accepted by experts in management to explain many of the problems that crop up in the work relationship. They occur because the supervisor and the subordinate have attitudes generated by his family life and other influences stemming from our culture. The emphasis on "teamwork" in industrial research, all kinds of manufacturing activity, and even in the day-to-day operation of a police department, is a part of this cultural manifestation. It is not something the supervisor can manipulate; rather, he has no choice but to recognize and adjust to the behavior patterns and attitudes of the people in his community, his supervisors and his subordinates.

5. Shifting Concepts of Management. The distinction between "staff" and "line" functions, so well delineated in the police table of organization, presents supervisory complications in actual practice. There may be a tendency for the staff officer to give instructions to line personnel without going through the supervisor. The use of functional supervision, such as the assignment of a traffic supervisor to exercise certain responsibilities over men who also are responsible to a platoon sergeant or shift lieutenant, has a similar effect. While both the staff and functional supervision techniques are invaluable to effective management, they may blur the chain of command if used unwisely. Further, modern management approaches to problems tends to diminish the discretion available to the supervisor in performing his job and at the same time multiply the number of people to whom he is accountable.

In summarizing these general trends it is important to recognize that neither the supervisor nor the things he does can be isolated from the flow of events in the society as a whole. Supervision deals with human beings and their relationships, and is subject to all the changes in behavior patterns that occur in the society itself. The supervisor has always been pressured to get the job done but today there is a strong counter pressure to make the job pleasant and attractive in order to hold employees. The present day supervisor doesn't have the swashbuckling authority he once had. Today the job of supervision is challenging, baffling, and at times frustrating. Management research indicates that the success of an individual as a supervisor, whatever the management situation, depends in large part on his own breadth of approach.

As has been pointed out, supervision is not restricted to the middle management level. For example, the senior patrolman in a two-man police car must actually be considered a supervisor, despite the fact that he is expected to carry the full share of the work load.

Since so many people can then be considered supervisors, the question may be asked, is there enough similarity between the supervisory responsibility in various situations to consider them in general terms. Does a street foreman have anything in common with a fire captain? Or does a police lieutenant have problems entirely different from those faced by the chief of the accounting section?

These questions are part of the broader issue which involves the degree to which administration is a field of professional competence separable from the program being administered. For many years the opinion was overwhelming that a person first had to develop skill and experience in the substantive aspects of the program iitself before he could aspire to administrative or supervisory leadership. This led in part to the development of "closed promotions" in many of our governmental units. But this no longer holds true to the degree it once did.

It is now generally believed that it is possible to become expert in supervision; that the requirements of being a supervisor are such that special training in supervision can result in effective leadership in any department, whether it be police, fire, streets, sewers, or finance. While certainly there must be knowledge of the particular field involved in each department, there must be planning, organization, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Further, the principles of how to direct people, how to become involved in the work environment so that work is conducted successfully, how to develop individual employees to make most effective use of their abilities, may be utilized as

well in the police as in the finance or street departments, in government as well as in industry.

If all these things are true of municipal supervision as well as ordinary supervision, why the need for special municipal training materials?

Work takes place within a certain setting or environment. While it is true that a police sergeant and a senior clerk in industry do have a great deal in common, it nevertheless is quite obvious that there are substantial differences in the situation in which the two must operate. The sergeant lives in the world of the uniform, among males, under a semi-military authoritarianism, and in constant touch with certain types of people. While the problems of supervision are universal, the answers must be conditioned by the setting in which the supervision occurs. Thus, it is desirable to look at society's common problems of supervision from a particular perspective, that of municipal government.

One of these aspects that differentiate the municipal situation from the private situation has been touched on briefly. The municipality is a public agency, and the municipal official must have a considerably different orientation than the firm or individual which directs its activities primarily in terms of its own self-interest. Supervision is influenced by the fact that government has stability and assurance of survival that few other organizations in society can expect. Thus, the easy criterion of success which the profit balance provides in many private activities is not possible in municipal supervision. The democratic character of government is another factor of importance. The legislative body and individual citizens who frequently see themselves as employers of their municipal officers are important conditioners of municipal government. Further, the citizen comes in contact with all levels in the governmental hierarchy. He meets the water meter reader, the "set out" man from the refuse collection unit, the police lieutenant, the city manager, and city council members, and municipal activities are not limited to specified areas. There is no factory wall in which governmental activities occur. The city reaches out from every individual within its jurisdiction and every point of contact could become a point of tension for the municipal supervisor.

Civil service influences managerial prerogative where the system is in effect. Because of the background of civil service reform, in which the main effort was placed on the elimination of patronage, the effect of many of these programs has been overly protective of the employee and restrictive on the supervisors. To be sure, civil service is frequently used as a whipping boy for many supervisory and organizational inadequacies. Nevertheless, the existence of any formalized personnel program, particularly with the inclusion of certain legal guarantees to the employees must reduce the discretion of the supervisor. The process of whittling down the authority of the supervisor will probably continue in the long-run in both business and government, regardless of civil service. The effect of more than a decade of full employment, changes in our cultural attitudes, particularly with regard to unions, an increasing interest by the government in fair treatment and equal opportunity for all its citizens, tend to give increasing weight to formal and regularized personnel systems.

Supervisory authority has been weakened in government because of the stability of municipal employment. The work has become rather well systematized and expectations of performance arise out of group experience — no individual is absolutely essential to survival or success. This is manifest in the widespread adoption of position-classification plans by municipalities. Salary levels are assigned to positions and no matter how well a person may perform in a particular job, he cannot expect anything but a nominal increase in salary unless his duties and responsibilities are substantially changed. This leaves the supervisor with little real power to reward or penalize his employees. The supervisor has a kind of nominal control according to the rank he holds, but he must work within a situation where the tools of coercion, economic reward, and dismissal are largely lacking. Deprived of any real opportunity to crack the whip, the municipal supervisor is even more dependent than most on his ability to motivate individuals and to develop in each of them a real sense of obligation to perform the tasks of the city. In essence, the supervisor must be a leader.

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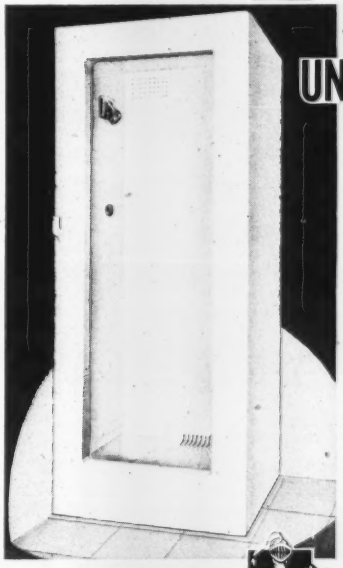

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Leadership has two aspects; that of directing and that of gaining cooperation. The effective supervisor directs by using certain techniques: by decision-making, by communicating his decision, by evaluating results, and by coordinating his direction with that of his fellow supervisors, managers, or staff personnel. As a leader, the supervisor retains ultimate responsibility for deciding between alternatives, but he can benefit generally from a limited participation by his subordinates. Having listened, the leader then has the job of assessing the relevancy of the suggested alternatives and considering consequences likely to follow their adoption.

Again, the supervisor must understand the importance and functions of communication in organizational matters. Communication can provide job related information, clarify responsibility, stimulate creative thinking, and satisfy reasonable curiosity. It also helps to be a good listener.

But, leadership must be coupled with management. The supervisor should work toward developing an organizational structure which has consistency, is in harmony with established goals, and permits maximum individual contributions. A prime aspect of supervision is the recognition and acceptance of responsibilities in the budgetary processes and public relations, in work distribution, in integration of efforts of each man, and in developing technical skills and leadership potential of subordinates.

Let us take just one of these aspects, developing leadership potentials in subordinates, to illustrate how the established principles of supervision may be applied to police work.

As a matter of fact, ICMA used personnel of the Highland Park, Illinois, police department as "actors" in a film strip designed to be used in classroom work on supervisory methods. Because of its easily recognized chain of command, the police organization was perfect for demonstration purposes in classes held thus far.

Development of understudies is one of the major responsibilities of the administrative official, whether he is a police sergeant, plant foreman, or office manager. Every police supervisor has had occasion to elevate a subordinate to "fill-in" for a brief period of time. It may be that an "understudy" does the work of a superior — a patrolman steps in for a vacationing sergeant, a sergeant takes over for an ailing lieutenant.

The short-term need such as is generated by vacations and illnesses is felt at all levels. The only alternative to the understudy on occasions such as these is to have other supervisors work a double shift. This is not a sound practice, other than to meet unanticipated major emergencies of brief duration. Even this emergency response can be avoided with the proper development of an understudy. And, in addition to filling short-term needs, systematic development of men capable of becoming supervisors provides a continuity of leadership over a period of many years. In the police field this is particularly important because of the trend toward lower retirement ages for policemen then called for in pension systems covering private industry and other municipal employees.

There are five basic steps in moving a subordinate into a supervisory position. These include: (1) asking the understudy for opinions; (2) teaching him how to get and use facts; (3) acquainting him with superiors at a higher level; (4) showing him all the jobs the supervisor must perform, and (5) leaving him in charge.

Asking for opinions helps to stimulate communication and confidence between the supervisor and the trainee. It builds confidence necessary when he becomes a supervisor and gives him a chance to show the supervisor how he can think. And it gives him practice in making decisions.

Training in fact-finding helps him to develop the ability to analyze, teaches him where to go to get relavent facts, develops his patience, gives insight into the importance of putting fact-finding before decision-making, makes him think before he acts, and gives him practice in trouble-shooting.

Acquainting the understudy with the superior at a higher level builds the understudy's confidence by further showing the supervisor's confidence in him, shows that he is trusted with authority and gives him important reporting practice. It gives him a chance to benefit from seeing how the supervisor operates outside of the subordinate group.

There can be no real development of personnel unless the understudy knows all of the supervisor's jobs. Only in this manner can he fully come to know the job, and develop versatility in giving instructions. Seeing how the supervisor reacts to a variety of situations gives the trainee actual experience in handling supervisors work and subordinates, and lets other workers know more clearly what they are expected to achieve for the understudy.

The last step, leaving him in charge, is the acid test for the understudy. It combines all of the other factors as he learns the whole job and makes real decisions. Other steps that may be taken by a supervisor to develop personnel is to rotate some or all of his workers so as to increase group flexibility and background on which promotion is based. He can encourage off-the-job self-improvement through enrollment in formal education programs or informal reading.

The supervisor's approach to promotional possibilities, as well as all other aspects of his job, should be systematic. If so, there will be less occasion for the supervisor to reach for the "panic button."

REFERENCES

[1] This discussion is based on the textbook, *Supervisory Methods in Municipal Administration*, used in the ICMA course. It was written by Professors Frank P. Sherwood and Wallace H. Best of the University of Southern California.

[2] James A. Norton in *Public Management*, September, 1959, p. 209.

★★★

Converting Words Into Pictures

A New Investigative Tool

By Richard F. Kenehan

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is a member of the New York City Police Department. Prior to his transfer to the Detective Division, he was assigned to the Police Academy. He was recently awarded a full three-year scholarship to the Famous Artist Cartoon Course.*

In addition to directing attention again to the potential role of the artist in criminal investigation, what he has to say will prove of special interest to others who would like to try their talents in the composite sketching of suspects from descriptions furnished by victims and witnesses.

COMPOSITE sketching probably cannot be called a truly modern adjunct to criminal investigation. It seems reasonable to assume that before the invention of the camera and the ensuing advent of our present "rogues gallery" system, the artist was frequently called upon to aid in the identification of offenders. Fundamentally the necessity for a composite sketch today is the same as it was in the era before our present scientific advances. Now as then, we are sometimes looking for an individual whose image exists only in the mind of the witness.

Even the most advanced camera cannot photograph a phantom and if the witness is unable to select the perpetrator from our photo files we find ourselves, in effect, back in the pre-camera era. It is then that we are compelled to revert to the comparatively ancient device of composite sketching or "Portrait Parle."

The making of a successful composite sketch is never the sole responsibility of the artist. It is a joint effort in which the role of the artist is actually subordinate to that of the witness. True, the artist holds the pencil, but the witness, for having actually seen the perpetrator holds the key to the success of the sketch. A modern-day Michaelangelo or Rembrandt could sit down with confused and uncertain witness and the resulting sketch, if used, could do much harm. No doubt it would be well drawn, it would be anatomically correct, artistically shaded and more than likely suitable for framing, but it would not be suitable as an aid in an investigation.

The artistic ability of the policeman making the sketch need not be too great. Naturally, he must be capable of drawing reasonably well. It is important however, that he have a working knowledge of what is considered to be the normal proportions of the human head, face and features, for it is the departure from the normal that gives the drawing the individuality of appearance which we seek.

If the outstanding characteristic of the person in the mind of the witness is for example, a broad nose, it would be senseless to draw the nose broad if you inadvertantly made the mouth wide also. It is the contrast of the unusual feature or features with the normal other features that causes the distinguishing characteristics to stand out. This is a principle employed by cartoonists to give their characters identity and individuality. It may seem that cartooning and composite sketching are at variance, but exaggerating and underplaying, which are the stock in trade of the cartoonist and caricaturist are, in a modified form, also valuable tools of the composite sketch artist.

I mentioned that in order to do composite sketching it is not essential that the artist be unusually skilled in the field of drawing. I repeat, he must draw reasonably well. There is however, one characteristic he must have more than anything else—patience. Witnesses have occasionally complimented me as I'm working, yet seldom have they mentioned anything about my ability to draw. It was the patience and willingness to try again that impressed them. This is said not in a spirit of boastfulness, but rather as an admission. I guess I'd rather have the great artistic ability than patience but such is not the case.

It's completely human and understandable to become discouraged and perhaps even annoyed when after hours of drawing, erasing and redrawing further changes are called for. Changes are to be expected and welcomed. They are essential to the success of the sketch. A composite sketch is not the product of some psychic phenomena. The man making it is not possessed of any occult powers enabling him to peer into the mind of the witness. He can do no more than try to interpret on his sketch pad what the witness gives him by word of mouth. The only possible way to do this is by a simple but time consuming process of drawing and changing until the result is as nearly consistent with what is in the mind of the witness as is possible, and only the witness can decide when that point has been reached. Until he announces that nothing more can be changed added or taken away the artist must be as willing to use the eraser end of his pencil as the graphite end. The whole art of composite sketching can be summed up just that simply.

Address: Richard F. Kenehan, 325 E. 200th Street, The Bronx, N.Y.

Woman who kidnaped an infant in Harlem. Preliminary sketch, based upon personal description, led to her arrest and positive identification.

Actually, the artist should feel encouraged by the discriminating attitude of the witness. It indicates that he has maintained a high level of interest, and in voicing his dissatisfaction he is, in effect, indicating his willingness to prolong what has been an ordeal for him. For the police artist to do less would almost border on malfeasance. He must try to be aware of the problems facing the witness. Take a few moments and in your own mind try to describe the druggist you have been dealing with for years, or the man who delivers your laundry, or perhaps even a member of your family who you see every day. What shape head has he? How much of the pupil of his eye is visible? Does he have a cleft in his chin? Do his eye brows arch? This is a familiar subject you're describing. How much more difficult for the victim or witness who gets only a brief look at someone he never saw before—and usually under circumstances of great stress.

The cooperation of the witness is essential, without it a sketch could not even be attempted. Therefore we must do all we can to maintain and nourish his spirit of willingness. More than likely this is his first direct contact with the police, and even though innocent of any wrong doing, he feels a certain pressure from being involved in a criminal investigation. His value as a witness will be greatly enhanced if his convenience and wishes are given as much consideration as is practicable. The surroundings he finds himself in when giving the description may have a strong bearing on the quality of his information. If he would be more comfortable in the familiar surroundings of his own home and indicates a preference for this then go to his home. The trip may be an inconvenience but if it is a means to a better sketch or investigation, the journey is worth it. We're dealing with a free man whose cooperation we seek, and the more consideration we show him the more cooperation we can expect to receive in return.

There are a number of methods used with success by various police artists throughout the country. I have experimented with a variety of systems and found a mode of working that brings me the best results. Before outlining the procedure I use, I feel that mention should be made of an important factor over which the artist has little or no control. I am going on the assumption that like myself the average police artist is probably in the lower ranks in the department. I am almost constantly in contact with men of higher rank but I have yet to experience a superior officer attempting to tell me how to go about making a sketch. This is not to infer that I am not subject to the same authority as other members of the department. If ordered to be at a certain precinct at a specified time I must be there. But once there and brought together with the witness I am left almost entirely to my own devices. This is brought out not merely as a pat on the back for this department, but rather as a suggestion to superior officers of other departments. Once the job is started, give your artist these same advantages I've enjoyed, without which I probably never would have made a successful sketch. In short, once the job is under way . . . leave him alone.

Now, for what it is worth—the procedure I follow in making a sketch. No matter where I'm working, the first thing I seek is a quiet spot where the witness will be as much at ease as possible. Privacy is important especially to the witness who is sometimes upset by his experience. It is virtually impossible for the witness to feel comfortable or to concentrate properly if he finds himself in a noisy, populated room or office. The surroundings need not be sumptuous, but they should be reasonably quiet and as private as is possible. The emotional condition of the witness will dictate to a large degree when to start the sketch. Taking time out for a cigarette and a period of getting acquainted never does any harm. Gradually you can turn the conversation from general small talk to the job at hand.

Before starting the drawing it is well to explain to the witness just what is expected of him. Make it clear that he is not to feel he is under any pressure, nor should he be in the least reluctant to find fault with how you visually inter-

pret his words. Impress upon him the fact that you expect and welcome his criticism. When he understands the part he is to play I place before him a series of drawings of different shaped heads from which he chooses the one closest to what he has in mind. I roughly copy his choice and make whatever changes he advises.

Next I ask for the feature that he considers to be the outstanding characteristic of the person he is describing. While he is doing this I lightly draw in all of the features of the face. This is then shown to the witness, not for his approval, but rather to give him some basis for comparison with his own mental picture. By presenting him with all the roughly indicated features you are creating a visual starting point for the whole face from which corrections can be made. As he is studying this I ask him to compare what he has been describing as the outstanding feature with what has been drawn. If it is the mouth for instance, he may claim it should be wider or the lips should be fuller. Changes are made on the outstanding feature till it meets with him approval. This seldom means that his satisfaction will be permanent. Each feature as it is drawn in has an effect on the other features. A nose, which in the early stages of the drawing, the witness felt was "perfect" may, when the other features are indicated in detail, have to be altered.

This changing of his opinion does not indicate that the witness is not possessed of a clear mental picture of the subject. These changes are a natural turn of events and should be considered encouraging. The witness is doing his job conscientiously. When all changes and corrections have been made and the witness is satisfied with the result, try going a step further. Let's take a hypothetical case of a witness describing a person of around forty years of age. Perhaps he can't recall having noticed any wrinkles around the eyes. Lightly indicate some on your drawing. If the witness feels that in spite of the fact that he can't recall seeing them, they do no harm to the sketch, leave them in. Chances are they belong there. Most people of that age have them, although they could be overlooked in a cursory glance. If, however, the witness feels the sketch suffers from their inclusion, take them out . . . the witness is the boss, he saw the man, you didn't.

Slayer of liquor store proprietor, shot to death while resisting a holdup. Illustration shows sketch from which detectives recognized killer six months later, and actual photograph of the subject.

Another case may be that of a person who is described as having high, arched eyebrows. It might be that the eyebrows are simply placed high and that is their natural position, but it could also be that the arching of the brows was caused by a nervous or unconscious muscular movement. If the latter were the case, there would be accompanying wrinkles on the forehead. Again, lightly indicate the wrinkles on your drawing. If they look good to the witness, leave them in. If not, resort to what should be, by now, your well worn eraser. Take advantage of every piece of information the witness gives you. If the suspect is described as tanned and weatherbeaten, apparently from working in the sun, can't we also assume that the same sun might also have caused him to squint, leaving wrinkles and lines around the eyes and mouth. No harm can come from including them. If the witness objects to the result, you still have your eraser. You will notice that with the single exception of the shape of the head, I have avoided the use of charts or photographs. I have charts which I keep available and which at one time I used extensively. I found however, that while it may be a bit more difficult in the beginning, you are better off if the witness is shown nothing, but is left to describe for himself what is in his mind.

Photographs and charts have a tendency to suggest too much to the witness. After looking at a number of sets of eyes in the hope of finding one that matches or comes close to those of the individual sought, many persons will lose the original

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picture they had in mind. This is not to say however, that charts are never used.

When the situation warrants, that is when you are unsuccessful in your efforts without charts, then resort to their use. They are however, undesirable I think, and are a crutch that I try not to lean upon too heavily. As I mentioned earlier, there are a number of methods used successfully by other police artists. What I have outlined above is merely the method I find best for myself.

Mention has already been made of having patience while making a sketch. It is well to also show this same patience after the sketch has been completed and circulated. You will probably make a good number of sketches before one will assist in an identification. Don't be impatient for quick results. A sketch long since made and forgotten by you may one day prove to be the best likeness you have ever made.

Many elements enter into a sketch being a success. Without a doubt the greatest contribution to this success is made by the alert detective or uniformed officer in the field. The artist could make an almost perfect likeness but the picture would be worthless unless an officer was sharp enough to recognize its similarity to some individual.

An example of this which comes to mind took place in Brooklyn last year. The proprietor of a liquor store was shot to death while resisting a stickup. The fleeing perpetrator was observed by some passers-by and a sketch was prepared from their description. At three-thirty A.M.; almost six months later a team of radio car patrolmen captured two men who had stuck up a gas station earlier that morning. During the interrogation, a detective noted a similarity between one of the men and the six month old sketch of the liquor store owner's killer. The sketch which was posted on the squad room wall depicted the suspect wearing a hunting cap. During the interrogation, their suspicions relative to the homicide heightened and led them to a search of the suspect's room, wherein the hunting cap was found. After further questioning and confrontation with the cap, he confessed to the homicide. He is now serving thirty-six years to life after pleading guilty to second degree murder.

While the sketch was not an identical drawing of the suspect, it did incorporate enough of the characteristics of the individual to arouse a suspicion when viewed by the officer. Were it not for the alertness and powers of observation of this particular officer the crime might still be unsolved and the sketch deemed worthless.

At a Manhattan station house, a desk officer studied a suspected prowler brought in by a patrolman for questioning. As the suspect seemed vaguely familiar, he referred to a copy of a sketch in his desk drawer of a man wanted for mugging in an adjoining precinct. There was a similarity. The detectives handling the case were notified, and agreeing that there was a resemblance, brought in the victim of the mugging. On viewing the suspect he identified him as his assailant. Again, as in almost every successful conclusion to a composite sketch the arrest resulted not so much from the skill of the artist as from the alert action of the individual who was sharp enough to recognize a similarity and act upon it.

It has been said that the composite artist is only as good as his witness. This of course is true. But to pursue this thought further, it should be observed that every sketch that ever was credited with aiding in the solution of a crime gained that credit through the efforts and actions of other members of the department, many times at the risk of their own safety and lives. Of this the artist should be aware, and in comparing his contribution with that of the officers pursuing the investigation and making the arrest, should feel somewhat humble, yet proud to have been a contributing member of the police team. ★★★

Delinquency Control Techniques as Influenced by Beliefs and Attitudes of Police Personnel

By William Dienstein

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is Associate Professor of Social Science and Criminology at Fresno State College, Fresno, California, and holds the A. B. degree from Stanford University, the M. A. from the University of California, and took the Ph. D. at Stanford University. He organized and administered the Department of Criminology (which includes in its offerings a degree curriculum in the Police major) from 1946 to 1950. His military service record includes the assignment as Instructor, Provost Marshal General's School 1942-44; Criminal Investigator and Administrative Chief of Crime Laboratory, Philippine Islands, 1944-45; Assistant Chief, Criminal Investigation, Sixth Army, 1950-52, and held the rank of Major, MPC, USAR.*

He is the author of TECHNICS FOR THE CRIME INVESTIGATOR *and* ARE YOU GUILTY?, *(Charles C Thomas), and is a regular contributor to the professional journals. Professor Dienstein is a Member of the Governor's Special Study Commission on Juvenile Justice (California), a member of the Editorial Board of* QUADERNI DI CRIMINOLOGIA CLINICA, *Ministry of Justice, Italy, and is Western Vice-President of the American Society of Criminology.*

THE PROJECT

THE literature on juvenile delinquency suggests that the number one obstacle in an effective approach to the problem of juvenile delinquency is confusion on the part of those primarily concerned with the problem. In order to test the validity of this idea, a study was undertaken to identify a possible source of the confusion. It was hypothesized that one source of the confusion was a lack of common understanding by the personnel of three public agencies dealing with children and youth — police, probation officers, and teachers — about the causes of juvenile delinquency. It was assumed that a lack of common understanding about the causes of juvenile delinquency would reduce the effectiveness of meeting the problem.

The research design was constructed to survey a representative sample of juvenile police officers, juvenile probation officers, and elementary and secondary school teachers in order to determine what were their beliefs about the causes of juvenile delinquency. The total sample consisted of four hundred eighty-four respondents: seventy-four elementary public school teachers, one hundred fourteen junior high public school teachers, sixty-four senior high public school teachers, one hundred thirty-one juvenile police officers, and one hundred-one juvenile probation officers.

To determine the degree of common understanding about the etiology of juvenile delinquency that existed among the personnel of the three public agencies selected for the study, an instrument was developed which contained two tests designed to measure: (1) beliefs about the causes of juvenile delinquency held by the respondents, and (2) meanings given to the causal statements about juvenile delinquency.

The instrument contained a check-list of thirty-five statements setting forth "causes" of delinquency. The statements were derived from the literature. The respondents were directed : (1) to accept or reject each statement, and (2) to classify each statement into one of four etiological categories: biological-physical, social-environmental, deliberate, and psychological.[1]

THE ROLE OF THE POLICE IN DELINQUENCY CONTROL

The peace officer can ask rightly, "What difference does it make what I believe about juvenile delinquency? I have a job to perform that is based upon operation not hypothesis."

The primary purpose of the police has always been to protect life and property against criminal attack and to preserve the peace. To accomplish this primary purpose the police have promoted activities designed to prevent conditions that may result in criminal behavior and

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[1]All respondents were given a mimeographed sheet for reference defining the classifications as follows:

Biological-Physical: This category includes all statements about the etiology of delinquency based on the idea that individual behavior is the result of physical differences or biological differences in the make-up of the individual. Physical differences such as deformities, disfigurements, grotesque and unusual features, results of diseases, results of injuries, and the like, are illustrative of this category as are biological differences such as limited mental capacity, improper glandular functioning, inherited defects or abnormalities, improper muscular functioning, and the like.

Social-Environmental: This category includes all statements about the etiology of delinquency based on the idea that individual behavior is the result of the molding influence of the environment; that is, the circumstances, conditions, situations, and attitudes in the home, gang, and clique, neighborhood, school, church, and community, determine how an individual will act; that his ways of behavior are learned from his social interactions.

Deliberate: This category includes all statements about the etiology of delinquency based on the idea that individual behavior is the result of choice on the part of the individual; that the individual deliberately and knowingly chooses to do what he does from among a wide variety of possible ways to behave. This concept accepts the premise that an individual freely chooses to do what is right and what is wrong and could just as easily have chosen the right as the wrong.

Psychological: This category includes all statements about the etiology of delinquency based on the idea that individual behavior is the result of the mental-emotional condition of the individual; that the individual behaves as he does because of the way he "sees" his surroundings (including people and ideas); that the way he "sees" his surroundings is controlled by his mind and feelings. Illustrative of the type of individuals who fall into this category are the emotionally unstable, the emotionally disturbed, the neurotics, the psychopaths, and the psychotics.

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to correct unsatisfactory conditions.[2] It logically follows that in order to achieve this purpose police personnel, especially those in the juvenile division, should be informed of the psychological and sociological findings about the etiology of juvenile delinquency.

It must be borne in mind that the relationship between the police and delinquency is similar to the relationship between the schools and delinquency and between probation and delinquency: the police may help to prevent delinquency; the police deal with delinquent behavior; and the police may help to produce delinquent behavior.

The police, generally, recognize that it is far more important to prevent crime than to detect a committed crime. They are in a logical position to prevent delinquency because they are acquainted with the focal points of crime in the community; their forces are deployed on a twenty-four hour basis; they usually have first knowledge of overt delinquency on the part of children and youth; they are in the best position to detect and to identify individuals and conditions contributing to juvenile delinquency; they can make frequent inspection of public places and commercial premises which attract youth.[3]

[2] O. W. Wilson: *Police Administration*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950, p. 209.

[3] U. S. Congress, Senate, Committee on the Judiciary: *Juvenile Delinquency, Senate Report 130*, pursuant to Senate Resolution 173, 84th Congress, 2d Session (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 162 and pp. 161-72.

The police are usually the first contact young offenders have with legal authority. The police deal with all major delinquency cases and a substantial portion of lesser infractions. For this reason they are tactically well situated to identify and to investigate new cases and to refer them to public and private resources for guidance casework or treatment.

The police intervene at a particularly highly strategic time in the lives of young people. It may be decisive as to the future behavior of the youngster whether this intervention be a constructive, destructive, or neutral influence.[4]

The manner in which an officer conducts himself with children and youth influences markedly the attitudes of children and youth toward law, other people, and the community. The manner of conduct of law enforcement personnel is especially significant in such ordinary police work as roundup and curfew enforcement with its obvious negative and repressive aspects. Many officers recognize how this kind of action may engender hostility on the part of the youth in his relationship and attitude toward authority. This hostility is aroused because these repressive actions are taken, and because the way they are done is reflective of the attitudes of those doing it.

An explanation of the motivations behind this sort of reaction on the part of youth toward authority cannot be stated briefly without oversimplifying and therefore distorting a complex situation. However, it is necessary to recognize that delinquents, being people, seek to justify their behavior by excusing themselves and blaming others. Given a grain of justification, the offenders can build a mountain of excuses.

There is nothing theoretical or abstract about the attitude of the offender toward authority; neither is there anything abstract about the attitude of police toward the offender. The fact of police attitude, or state of mind, the way in which police look at youthful offenders, is a very real condition. It is one's attitudes that determine one's behavior. How one "sees" the situation determines how one will react to that situation. The attitude of police toward offenders determines how the police will behave toward them.

Attitudes are created by opinions and meanings held by individuals. Opinions and meanings are derived from experiences with the specific object or activity or from acceptance of another's attitude toward these specific objects or activities. The danger lies in the development of attitudes on the basis of uncritical acceptance of experiences or of uncritical acceptance of another's attitude as valid and general. For example, an officer working a slum area is limited to relationships with those in the slum area who violate the law. The violators tend to become familiar to him. From his experiences with these relatively few people he makes generalizations applicable to all offenders. He may conclude that since all these violators come from poverty-stricken homes, delinquency is "caused" by poverty. On the other hand, an officer assigned to a well-to-do

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 162.

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area may conclude that the delinquency in his area is "caused" by lack of parental supervision. Or, an officer has been told by a more experienced colleague that the only way to handle juvenile offenders in an area is by show of force. He accepts this approach as the way to handle all juveniles.

The opinions and meanings reported by the personnel who replied to the survey in this study are the justifications for the methods they use in working with juveniles. As their opinions and meanings vary and are incoordinate or in conflict, it is likely that the methods used will vary and will be incoordinate or in conflict. This suggests that it would be possible for personnel within an agency and between agencies to work at cross purposes and to develop hostilities toward one another. In addition, the methods used, which tend to be based on the beliefs expressed, may violate or prevent the ultimate solution of the problem of delinquency by impeding the development in the delinquent of socially acceptable patterns of behavior.

THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The results when tabulated showed that there existed: (1) marked differences in opinions about the causes of juvenile delinquency, and (2) a wide variety of interpretations of meanings of causal statements among the personnel within each agency and among the three agencies.

These marked differences of opinions and wide varieties of meanings indicated a lack of common understanding about the causes of juvenile delinquency. This inference in no way implies that unanimity of opinion is necessary or desirable. It merely suggests that here is a situation wherein personnel of several agencies, all dealing with the same problem, seem to lack any coherent basis of cooperative action other than society's requirement that something be done.

The findings of the study revealed a phenomenal amount of misunderstanding about the causes of juvenile delinquency. Ninety-six per cent of the respondents accepted one or more monocausal statements about juvenile delinquency, that is, they believed in the single factor theory of delinquency causation. The preponderance of evidence in the literature emphasizes that many factors contribute to delinquency, and that the necessary conditions for delinquency are the presence of psychological and environmental predisposants and precipitants which tend to be variant.

In addition to possessing beliefs about the causes of juvenile delinquency which were contrary to evidence, the respondents were unable to classify the causal or etiological statements into "proper" categories. This illustrated either a misunderstanding of the categories described as biological-physical, social-environmental, deliberate, and psychological, or a misunderstanding of the causal statements. In either case, there is indica-

tion of confusion — confusion about meanings compounded by beliefs about causation that are contrary to available current knowledge.

What are the implications of the findings of the study for the police officer?

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE POLICE OFFICER

Beliefs and understandings about delinquency causation are basic to attitudes. Attitudes, as previously discussed, influence behavior. The evidence provided by the study is that the beliefs about the etiology of juvenile delinquency held by the respondents were so varied and contradictory to each other that effective cooperation within and among the agencies working with the delinquent is impaired. As the degree of cooperation among and within agencies is reduced, their effectiveness in coping with the problem of delinquency is diminished.

The question arises: How do beliefs develop? There may be many answers. One answer may lie in the occupation of the individual and the interpretation of his function. How one sees one's job may be an important factor in determining beliefs, even beliefs contrary to fact. Let us examine this concept.

The police officer sees his primary function as one of management and control. His task is to prevent violation of legal regulations and to apprehend those who commit violations. It may be said, therefore, that where management and control are essential to the performance of the required functions, then violators who disrupt the society must be restrained and managed by authority. Authoritarian methods are usually used to solve immediate behavior problems. The justification for the use of authoritarian methods lies in two areas: social and personal.

In the social area, disruption of and damage to society and/or injury to the individual cannot be tolerated. In the personal area, restraint and/or punishment are required because the problem is immediate and cannot wait for other solutions. Herein lies a basis for disagreement and even hostility among personnel and agencies, for each approaches the same problem from a different viewpoint and the methods of each tend to be in opposition. Here is the reason why cooperation is so important—each is dealing with the same problem and each may handle the same violator.

The police function is to maintain the peace. This is their justification for immediate efforts to repress delinquent behavior. Physical control and/or punishment are the only "practical" and effective deterrents to deviant behavior. To justify authoritarian management and control the concept develops that the causes of delinquent behavior are either biological or deliberate, that individual behavior is the result of physical or biological differences (usually inferiorities), or the result of choice on the part of the individual to commit a violation from among a wide variety of possible ways to behave.

In reality, the problem of immediate control is one aspect of a larger problem. It is not enough to control the deviant behavior of a youth by apprehension. The larger problem is to seek to bring about changes in patterns of behavior so that the youth will behave in an acceptable manner. This becomes the function of a treatment agency. To change behavior patterns of an individual requires careful consideration of the individual as a person. His violation is important only as it reflects the extremes to which he will go in deviant behavior.

To justify a treatment program it must be believed that patterns of behavior may be changed through manipulation of social conditions or through modification of personality traits. The police viewpoint rests heavily upon external controls: threats of force, punishment, restrictions, and the like. The viewpoint of treatment agencies rests on external controls only as a device which enable them to make the youth available for rehabilitation. They are more concerned with bringing about changes within the individual by making him aware of the motivations for his behavior. When solutions to the problem of delinquency tend to take on polar aspects, control and punishment on the one hand and treatment on the other, and there is little or no means available for developing an understanding awareness of the other's frame of reference, the ordinary obstacles to effective cooperation are compounded.

It would appear as a result of the foregoing discussion that the role and function of the police tend to create and maintain beliefs that support the action of the personnel even though these beliefs may be contrary to current knowledge. This is a common form of rationalization and is engaged in by all, not only police personnel.

The remedy lies in the clarification in the minds of the personnel of three aspects of their function: (1) what are they doing? (2) why are they doing it? and (3) what is the effect of their action?

Clarification requires a recognition of the basic fact that the police function is only *part* of a larger function — the prevention and control of delinquency. Since other public and/or private agencies will be concerned with the problem as a whole and with the delinquent in particular, it behooves police personnel to do their job in such a way as to reduce the chances for conflict with agencies that must of necessity take over the job of attempting to do something with the delinquent other than physically restrain his unacceptable behavior.

Clarification also requires a recognition of the role and function not only of the police agency but also of the role and function of other agencies that will work with the delinquent. These must mesh in a harmonious manner if effectiveness in approach to the problem of delinquency is to increase. ★★★

IN CASE YOU'RE TRAFFIC MINDED

Northwestern University Pioneers Traffic Training and Research

By Bernard R. Caldwell

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Before his appointment as director of the Traffic Institute, on November 30, 1959, Bernard R. Caldwell was commissioner of the California Highway Patrol. He is a graduate of the Traffic Institute's 1937-38 class in Traffic Administration.*

Thirty-four years of public police service began in 1925 with his appointment as a policeman in the Los Angeles Police Department. General assignments followed his appointment until 1933 when he first became identified with the department's traffic operations.

In 1941, he was appointed deputy chief, and the balance of his municipal police service was devoted to establishing, organizing, developing, and operating a modern traffic bureau. Under his administration, the city won first place among cities of a million or more population in national traffic safety contests of 1949, 1950, and 1951.

While Caldwell was highway patrol commissioner, from 1953 until his retirement in March 1959, the state registered impressive traffic safety records.

In 1958, for example, fatal accidents in areas covered by the highway patrol declined 6.3 percent over the previous year. It was the second straight year that deaths in those areas were reduced, despite a considerable increase in traffic volume. California's death rate per 100-million miles dropped steadily from nearly 6.5 in 1956 to 5.5, in 1958.

Caldwell is a member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police; President's Committee for Traffic Safety; National Committee on Uniform Traffic Laws and Ordinances; State Police Officers' Association of California; Los Angeles Police Officers' Association; Illinois Associaiton of Chiefs of Police; Advisory Committee, Delinquency Control Institute of the University of Southern California, and has served as chairman of many national committees identified with uniformity of laws and ordinances, traffic administration and public information.

Caldwell was the first recipient of the Kemper Award for Excellence in Traffic Law Enforcement.

This is one of a series of articles written exclusively for POLICE featuring educational institutions whose resources for training and research have been brought into contact with the personnel needs of the law enforcement field.

Address: Bernard R. Caldwell, Director, Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

TRAFFIC problems today are more numerous and complex than ever before. Consequently, police officers concerned with traffic law enforcement, accident investigation, traffic records, and traffic control must be highly skilled men who can put new and better techniques into action in their own communities.

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Confronted with greater problems than ever before, today's police agencies must take advantage of modern management techniques. Good management is as essential to the police profession as it is to a profit-making enterprise. Police "profits" are manifested in terms of a safer, more orderly community.

Managerial skills can be taught, but training opportunities in police administration and supervision are rare. This is why the Traffic Institute's nine-month police administration training program offers especially important opportunities to law enforcement agencies and communities.

The law enforcement officer who successfully completes the Traffic Police Administration Program will take back valuable staff and administrative skills to his department. He will have been taught to think in modern traffic terms, adapt and apply his new knowledge to the special requirements of his own department, and intelligently discuss new techniques. He will have better technical competence in areas closely related to traffic law enforcement, such as traf-

Police students attending Traffic Institute course examine shoulder patches of some of the thousands of officers who have preceded them.

fic engineering and motor vehicle administration.

Specifically, he will be able to perform staff work for the chief, assume command or supervisory duties, develop and guide a departmental training program, and serve as liaison between the department and other groups working to solve the traffic problem.

The Traffic Police Administration Program consists of four major study areas.

One is highway transportation. Study in this area acquaints the traffic police administrator with the work of other important agencies and activities concerned with management and control in the highway transportation and motor vehicle accident prevention fields. Topics include community safety programs, traffic court organization and operation, highway traffic engineering, and legislation.

Another study area is traffic police functions. Emphasis is placed on the basic elements of traffic police operations – accident investigation, traffic law enforcement, and traffic direction. Chemical tests for intoxication also are covered.

A third study area is police service management: specific training for command and staff responsibilities. Topics include police traffic records, personnel management, training programs, and leadership.

The fourth study area is in general education. Its purpose is to train the administrator to think, write, and talk effectively about managing and operating the traffic police service program, and to provide him with an understanding of human behavior, political structure, and society in general.

Scholarships for the nine-month course each year are made available to qualified police officers. The Insurance Institute for Highway Safety, for instance, is providing thirty-two grant-in-aid awards for the Traffic Police Administration Program from September 1960 to June 1961.

About 900 officers have successfully completed this professional-level program since it began twenty-four years ago. Graduates hold top command positions in municipal and state law enforcement agencies throughout the United States and in several foreign countries.

Also in the area of general management functions is a series of unit courses for command and staff personnel. Most of the courses run from one to four weeks, with thirty-five hours of instruction each week.

The unit courses are Introduction to Police Management, Personnel Management for Police, Supervision of Police Personnel, Training Methods and Programs, Traffic Law for Police, and Police Traffic Records. They provide command and staff personnel with special training in specific areas of police management.

Management principles as adapted to police service are discussed in detail in Introduction to Police Management. These principles include methods of planning, organization of activities, staff work and how it can help police administrators, and the development and use of policies and procedures as performance guides.

Personnel Management offers a comprehensive treatment of such techniques as recruitment, examinations, training, assignments, and promotion and performance evaluation. This unit is for officers administering personnel policies within the framework of existing local or state laws and regulations.

The Personnel Supervision unit gives officers a fuller understanding of personnel supervision in both traffic and general police service, with emphasis on four basic responsibilities of supervisors: directing, improving, evaluating, and reporting.

Training Methods and Programs is intended to improve police department in-service training. This unit emphasizes the importance of recognizing specific training needs, using training most effectively to meet these needs, and employing good teaching methods.

The legal aspects of traffic law enforcement are covered in the Traffic Law unit. Instructors and students discuss the legal rights, duties, and authority of the police in traffic supervision, with citations of appropriate case law.

Traffic Records covers the administrative analysis of records data as a basis for developing and improving police traffic operations. Topics include the collection, processing, and storage of data; analysis of data to determine cause-and-effect relationships, and preparation of statistics.

In the second general area, traffic

Gerald O'Connell, director of training, at the blackboard instructing police officers at the Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

Officers are shown during a class session of the Traffic Police Administration training program.

operations supervision, unit courses provide professional-level instruction in specific police traffic operations.

These short courses are Fundamentals of Police Traffic Service; Accident Investigation, administration and techniques; Traffic Law Enforcement, administration and techniques; Chemical Tests for Intoxication, and Traffic Control, devices and methods.

Instructors in the Fundamentals unit teach supervisory and command personnel the techniques necessary to improve police traffic functions. Topics include accident investigation, traffic law enforcement, and traffic direction, as well as such related areas as courts, driver licensing, and traffic engineering.

The Accident Investigation unit is a detailed presentation of police responsibilities in this field. The unit covers the application of accident-scene data to accident prevention, including improvement of this function through training and supervision.

The theme of Traffic Law Enforcement is how this activity can be strengthened by effectively using manpower through direction, supervision, and evaluation according to procedural guides adapted to a department's needs.

The Chemical Tests unit consists of laboratory and lecture sessions for technicians and other personnel in police, health, and medical departments who may be called upon to determine the percentage of alcohol in the blood of a driver or pedestrian.

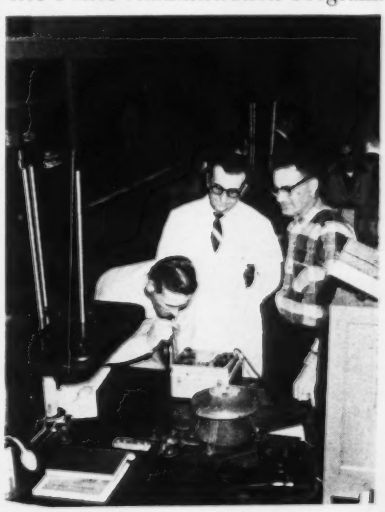
The content of Traffic Control includes devices and methods used to regulate vehicle and pedestrian movements until more permanent remedies are provided by professional engineering assistance.

Each unit provides the knowledge necessary to plan, develop, supervise, or improve a departmental program in the area covered. Planned, continued use of this training can assure availability of men competent to assume command or supervisory responsibilities in traffic functions.

Chiefs annually send about 1,000 selected officers to receive unit-course training at the Traffic Institute. The officers return equipped to contribute new knowledge to traffic accident problems in their jurisdictions. Most important, the officers are trained to transmit their knowledge to other qualified men in their departments.

The Traffic Institute's courses are not limited to the Evanston campus. Police training is extended into the field; courses are conducted on regional, state, county, and departmental bases.

Each year, six two-day in-service training conferences are conducted regionally for graduates of the Traffice Police Administration Program.



Police officers attending Traffic Institute course in Chemical Tests for Intoxication learn to operate testing devices in laboratory.

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A three-day seminar also is held at the Traffic Institute. These conferences, attended by the graduates' chiefs, too, are devoted to discussion of current traffic problems and their solutions.

These special sessions have proved to be the most productive and economical means of keeping Traffic Police Administration graduates up to date with the latest developments. At the same time, the sessions enable the Traffic Institute staff to keep up with the graduates' needs and problems.

Regional short-courses are held at universities around the country. For example, a two-week Accident Investigation course was held at the University of Maryland beginning July 18. The Esso Safety Foundation cooperates in many of these courses.

Similar courses are conducted for police throughout a state or an area of several counties. About 600 metropolitan area policemen attended a series of special courses in Minneapolis last February and March.

Training is sometimes conducted in connection with the survey of a police department's organization, such as in Tampa, Florida, last year. Traffic Institute instructors also have assisted with police department training in Broward County and Orlando, Florida; Ponca City, Oklahoma; Little Rock, Arkansas, and St. Louis, Missouri.

The foundation for this police traffic education around the country and in Evanston goes back to 1936 when the Traffic Institute was originated under the auspices of Northwestern University and through grants by the Automotive Safety Foundation, the Kemper Foundation for Traffic Safety, and the University. Many other organizations also make grants today.

The Traffic Institute, which recently became a division of the Transportation Center at Northwestern University, has established close working relationships with other leading organizations interested in the highway traffic field.

Among them are the American Bar Association, the American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the National Safety Council, the American Medical Association, the President's Highway Safety Committee, the Bureau of Public Roads, and the Institute of Traffic Engineers.

They cooperate in the Traffic Institute's training of motor vehicle administrators, fleet supervisors, traffic engineers, judges, prosecutors, and court clerks, as well as police.

The Traffic Institute has two objectives, which are:

1. The reduction of accidents and congestion in every community, and a reduction of their cost in terms of lives, health, and property.

2. The professional training of personnel and the development of sound traffic programs.

The Traffic Institute's program of research and education will continue to grow and develop. ★★★

Northwestern University Traffic Institute Graduates Thirty-three In Traffic Police Administration

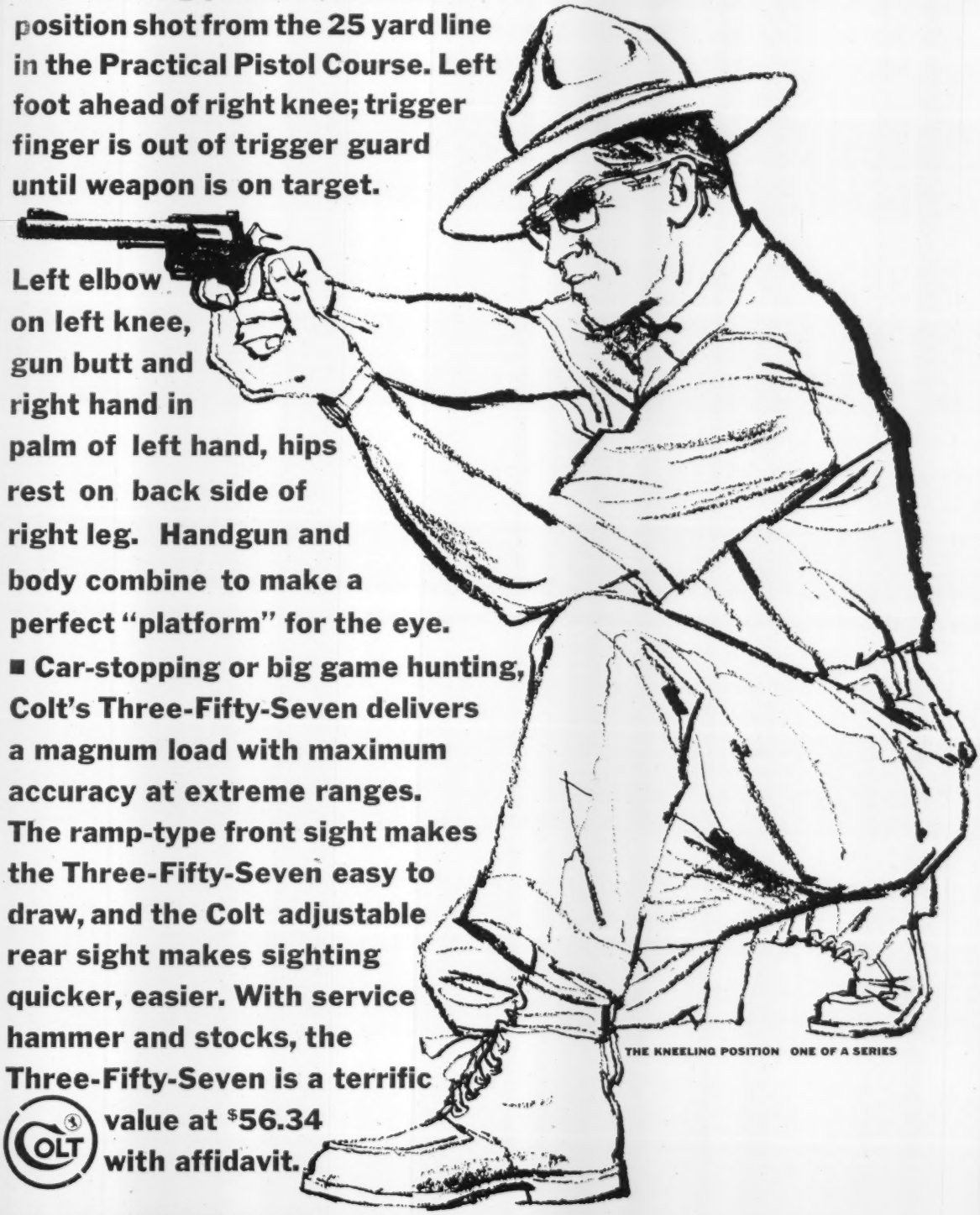
Thirty-three police officers were graduated on June 13 from the nine-month Traffic Police Administration Training Program at the Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, during the Universitys' 102nd annual commencement on the Evanston campus.

The officers received their graduation certificates at ceremonies in McGraw Hall. Their graduation brought the number of law enforcement officers who have completed the course to 896. Many Traffic Police Administration graduates now hold top administrative and supervisory positions in law enforcement agencies throughout the United States and in foreign countries.

The Traffic Institute's 1959-60 class represented 19 cities, 8 states, 1 county, the Port of New York Authority, Guam, and Venezuela. Twenty-nine officers attended the Traffic Police Administration course on grants provided by the Insurance Institute for Highway Safety, Washington, D.C. Traffic Digest, July 1960. ★★★

NATURAL POSITION...NATURALLY COLT

Feel Colt's Three-Fifty-Seven. Lock in on target—hands... elbow...knee...haunches. This is the kneeling position, the first position shot from the 25 yard line in the Practical Pistol Course. Left foot ahead of right knee; trigger finger is out of trigger guard until weapon is on target.



Left elbow on left knee, gun butt and right hand in palm of left hand, hips rest on back side of right leg. Handgun and body combine to make a perfect "platform" for the eye.

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Edited by Paul B. Weston

..... Ricochets .....

Survey in Progress

A survey of prevailing practices in firearms training was initiated during the past two months; over 200 questionnaires were forwarded to a selected sample made up of large and small police departments from every section of the United States. The prompt response to these queries and the thoroughness with which each question was answered certainly made me proud of each and every police chief concerned.

Last year, in a New Jersey court case, I spent three days on the witness stand, one day on direct examination and two days on cross-examination. A careful review of each and every question asked me during these three days revealed all the attorneys involved to be interested in about a dozen major phases of firearms training. These points, around which the questionnaire used in this present survey was constructed, are as follows:

1. The Recruit Training Program
   a. The number of lecture hours spent on safety, nomenclature, sighting and aiming, etc.
   b. How many hours spent in actual practice on the range, and whether this is "well-separated" practice, such as one day a week for twelve weeks, or just how the time is apportioned.
   c. What is the ammunition allowance for each recruit officer and what courses are fired?
   d. What qualification is required:
      1) Before the recruit is permitted to carry a revolver on duty?
      2) Before the officer is "graduated" from the police academy?
2. The In-Service Training Program
   a. How often are officers on regular duty required to report to a pistol range and fire their service revolvers? What is the qualification?
   b. Is there any requirement for officers to practice with their "off-duty" guns (2-inch barrel revolvers)?
3. General
   a. What are the department's specifications on revolvers?
   b. What are the department's specifications on holsters for uniform duty?
   c. How often are weapons inspected?
   d. How often are holsters inspected?
   e. Is there any "open" time for officers to shoot on the range between scheduled appearances?
   f. Are there incentives for improved proficiency in firearms?

Firearms training officers may profit from an examination of the above listing of questions in that they clearly delineate some of the areas verging on "active wrongdoing" in negligence cases arising out of an accident or misfortune with a police weapon — unless the police unit concerned can show their instruction was equal to national standards. ★★★

Address: Paul B. Weston, Assistant Professor, Law Enforcement Training Program, Sacramento State College, 6000 J. St., Sacramento, California.

WARNING

So-called "concealed" holster releases are not in fact hidden from public knowledge. A Marysville, California, police sergeant can testify to this fact. His testimony is based on his own experience of a few weeks ago. Armed with his service revolver in a "clam shell" type of holster requiring pressure on a "concealed" button to release the gun, this police officer transported a mental patient from his home to a local hospital. On arrival at the hospital, the sergeant was standing in front of the admissions desk with his previously cheerful and cooperative prisoner when he "felt movement."

The prisoner, with great accuracy, had stabbed his right index finger into the trigger guard of the sergeant's revolver as

as it rested in the holster, activating the release button, and had grasped the butt of the gun as it dropped from the suddenly opened holster.

Chief John O. Blevins of the Marysville Police Department and all of his force deserve commendation for capturing this "psycho" without injury to any police officer, or the prisoner. From an incident with potentially tragic overtones, patient and intelligent police work resolved the situation with credit to all concerned.

The fact that the prisoner fled with the sergeant's gun, disarmed another policeman, and remained barricaded in a private home for twenty hours indicate the problems faced by Chief Blevins in this period.

The ease with which this police sergeant was disarmed points up the need for every policeman to do a little reality testing with his own holster. Is it possible for *your* revolver to be easily snatched from its holster, or delivered into the waiting hands of a thief or insane person by the mere act of pressing a button?

★★★

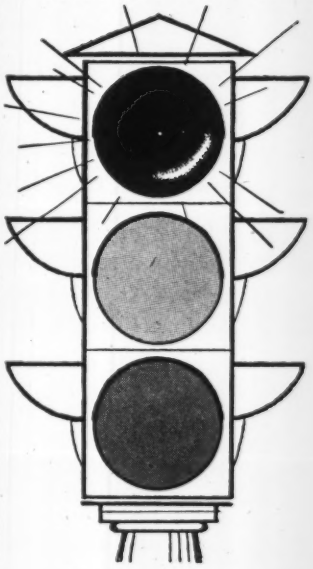
Toney Elected President of International Association of Police Firearms Instructors

The nation's top police shooters and instructors attending the first annual meeting of the International Association of Police Firearms Instructors at the Van Orman Graham Hotel in Bloomington, Indiana, on June 10th, 1960, selected a former national champion with the pistol as its new President, Chief Patrol Inspector William Toney, Jr., of the U. S. Border Patrol, El Paso, Texas. "Bill" Toney also fired on teams representing the United States in Olympic and other international competition, and has for years been in charge of firearms training for the Border Patrol.

Originally, this organization was formed in 1958 during a Firearms Instructor's School at the Center for Police Training, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, and was named the Mid-West Firearms Instructor's Association. In the ensuing year the flood of aplications for membership forced the change in the organization's name because of memberships awarded to firearms training officers in Canada and Puerto Rico.

New by-laws were voted and will allow applications for membership without geographical limitation of any kind. However, the original vocation limitation was maintained and memberships are open only to applicants who can show they are firearms instructors in a law enforcement agency. ★★★

More and more state and local Police Chiefs say...



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Mr. A. E. Leonard, Now a Member of the I.A.C.P. Staff

Mr. A. E. Leonard, for many years Chief of the Uniform Crime Reporting Section of the F.B.I., has upon his recent retirement joined the I.A.C.P. Field Service Division as a specialist in reporting and records systems.

The French Commissaire of Police in the Mid-Nineteenth Century

By Howard C. Payne

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Payne received the Ph.D., degree at the University of California in Berkeley. He is Professor of History at Washington State University in Pullman, Washington. As a Fulbright Research Scholar, he has engaged in extensive on-the-ground research in France and has been especially interested in the era of Napoleon III in French history, more particularly in the characteristics of police controls during that time. Dr. Payne is the author of A DAY'S WORK OF THE PRESS POLICE DURING THE SECOND EMPIRE IN FRANCE, which appeared in the January-February 1957 issue of POLICE.*

As the reader will note in the following unusual excerpt from French police history, written exclusively for the Journal, the COMMISSAIRE was a man of many parts. His experiences and responsibilities offer an intriguing parallel with those of the police today.

In 1860 a French police journal editorialized, "The police, being the foundation of civilization, must progress along with that civilization."[1] The advice was uttered at the midpoint of Emperor Napoleon III's dictatorial Second French Empire (1852-1870), often labeled a "police state" by historians. The words were meant for over 2,000 *commissaires* of police who were, and still are, expected to be police officers of limitless versatility—key men in a centralized, national police system run from Paris. With antecedents in Roman Gaul and the French monarchy, the *commissaire* in his essentially modern form has for one hundred and seventy years played a unique and indispensable role in the French police. This officer, whose position cannot be meaningfully expressed by the English term "commissioner," found the Second Empire to be an important period in his development. Who was this indispensable man and what was his status a hundred years ago?

In Paris or provincial towns, the fully-uniformed *commissaire* was a familiar sight. Impressive in a suit of blue, topped by a black, fringed, fore-and-aft cocked hat, he carried a black-hilted sword with silver trim. His trousers were silver-striped down the sides. Silver braid and symbols of rank laced his coatsleeves and collar. His starched white shirt was closed at the throat by a white bow tie. On occasion this regalia was replaced by the black robe of a magistrate. Or in the provinces, the full uniform might only appear on ceremonial days. But always, day or night, the *commissaire* was identified by his red-white-and-blue sash, the solemn emblem of his police authority since the great French Revolution of the 1790's.

Girded by his tricolor sash, the *commissaire* was available around the clock, his office marked nightly by a lantern traditionally hung over the entrance, "like a protective beacon." According to one observer:

> They are busy night and day, going everywhere in unforeseen circumstances, giving ceaseless care to the best interests of society . . . Thus their function is complex.[2]

This was indeed true. Actually, it was an understatement.

To understand the *commissaire's* complex role we must place him within the public administration system of which he was part. The nineteenth century French administrative services, a legacy of the first Napoleon, were highly centralized, depending from various national ministries in Paris. Local self-government hardly existed, despite the presence of elective assemblies at municipal and regional levels. Such centralized administration was easily adaptable to dictatorship. Louis Napoleon, named president of the Second Republic in 1848, had used his influence over the administration to consolidate his power in 1851 and to convert the republic into the Second Empire in 1852. This was possible because police powers on a national scale were an integral part of French public administration. Police functions were "built into" the system as a whole.

Several central ministries deployed small armies of civil servants throughout the country. France had eighty-six principal administrative districts, or *départements*, smaller than many American counties. Each *département* was subdivided into *arrondissements*, *cantons*, and *communes*, the latter being municipalities run by mayors and elected municipal councils. Officials of the various ministerial bureaucracies served in these various territorial jurisdictions, exercising decisive tutelary powers over municipal governments in all important matters, including that of police.

Police powers were wielded primarily—but not exclusively—[3] by the administrators of the Ministries of Interior and Justice. Under the Ministry of Interior the *prefects*, one in each of the 86 *départements*, were the kingpins of French public administration and police. The prefect commanded several *sub-prefects* stationed in the *arrondissements*. Sub-prefects, in turn, directed other types of police personnel down to the municipal level, from cities to tiny villages. *Commissaires* of police were therefore administrative officials specializing in police, occupying a place in the hierarchy between the sub-prefects and municipal officials. But their administrative relationships cannot be stated so simply. They were also tied to the bureaucracy of the Ministry of Justice.

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The Ministry of Justice also had its hierarchy of public prosecutors, or *procureurs-généraux,* and their various auxiliary magistrates, organized within twenty-seven regional jurisdictions. Police authority was broadly defined under two headings: *administrative* police, under the Ministry of Interior and the prefects; and *judiciary* police, under the Ministry of Justice and the public prosecutors. Administrative police duty involved routine much like that of American police officers, but also a good deal more—from the regulation of prostitution to surveillance over transport, business, and public health. Not least was the responsibility of *political* police, including many security activities directed against enemies of the existing government and toward support of current governmental policy. Where the work of the administrative police ended that of the judiciary police began. Or rather, the two overlapped in practice. The judiciary police swore out warrants and other documents, continued investigations begun by the administrative police, brought culprits to trial in several categories of courts, and worked closely with administrative personnel in political police matters.

The *commissaires* combined both the two functions of administrative police and judiciary police. Depending on the matter at hand, a *commissaire* might be responsible to the prefect one moment and to the *procureur-général* the next. Moreover, at still other moments he donned his black robe and acted as his own police court magistrate![4] He wore not only these three hats, but a fourth as well. In his town or city of residence he was involved in the *municipal* police. This branch included various agents under the mayor's direction. It was autonomous in purely routine local police, but it could always be commanded for general police objectives by the prefect. At times our *commissaire* might give orders to a mayor and the municipal police on behalf of the prefect; at other times he took orders from the mayor, acting as the supervising officer over the municipal police in its strictly local tasks. Finally, he had the power to call on the *gendarmerie,* a military police administered under the Ministry of War.

Resplendent in cocked hat, sword, and tricolor sash, performing several kinds of police functions under various administrative authorities, and routinely mounting his own judicial bench, the French *commissaire* of police was truly a man of many parts. From political surveillance of national import to the direction of traffic in some dull provincial town, the *commissaire* was expected to play his part, ever alert to face "any . . . danger of the day or night,"[5] active and able in his myriad tasks. Little wonder that he was often told, "the *commissaire* of police is the sole immediate, direct, and impartial link between the people and the Chief of State, by way of the prefects."[6] In his *commissariat* were embodied the various police powers of a vast public administration. His competence was said to include "every fact and deed of concern to justice and the entire society."[7]

Such a full view of the *commissaires'* mission reflected

Commissaire de Police, Second Napoleonic Empire and Commissaire de Police, today.
Photos courtesy Section "Photographie," Direction des Services Techniques, French Prefecture de Police.

a public law theory whereby administrative officers such as the prefects and *commissaires* represented the delegated sovereignty of the State itself. Arguing that "the right of police derives from the community's right to existence," French theorists concluded that the government represented society's "right of legitimate defense" against all forces of disorder. Here was a juridical basis for political police. Here also were the grounds for assuming that when defending the public security, *commissaires* (and certain other authorities) shared in the sovereignty of government itself, exercising society's right of "legitimate defense."[8] France's highest court decided in 1838, "they exercise, by direct delegation . . . a part of the public authority."[9]

Hence, the *commissaires* were immune from prosecution for their official acts, except by permission of the highest administrative authority itself, the Council of State.[10] They were nearly invulnerable when dealing with the public, so long as their conduct remained legally correct. This immunity meant much at a time when the *commissaires* were deeply involved in political police and were expected to act upon the assumption that "the function of the police consists of the totality of means used by

a government to protect everyone."[11] The *commissaires* were often reminded that their institution was "one of the main branches of the paternalistic administrative tree, under whose limbs the whole of society confidently takes shelter."[12]

Backed by such inclusive theory and linked by his complex station to various branches of public administration, the *commissaire* was in a position to inspire respect. His job included highly diverse tasks requiring much knowledge, wisdom, and skill in human relations. The Second Empire increased his numbers and responsibilities.

In 1860 there were 2,150 *commissariats*. Of these, 153 belonged to the special police system of Paris and environs, 49 were attached to railways and other special services, and 1,948 were assigned to towns and cities of the provinces. In the largest cities, from two to nineteen *commissaires* shared parts of one urban jurisdiction,[13] but more typical was the lone *commissaire* in a provincial town, with jurisdiction over several other *communes*, or in many cases, over one or more entire cantons. One harrassed officer had 42 towns and villages under his surveillance![14] But whatever the size of his district, the busy *commissaire* ran his office, often without secretarial aid, living his several official lives all at the same time.

Every day he attended to correspondence, held conferences with the mayor and other authorities. He made out incessant reports, amidst interruptions from the day's callers. He supervised the daily work of ordinary police agents, including uniformed patrolmen of municipal police (*sergents de ville*), plain clothesmen (*inspecteurs de police*) and village guards (*gardes-champêtres*). He must stroll through the town several times daily, "opening his eyes and ears, seeing everything and taking notes."[15] Every three months the *commissaire* made a routine tour of inspection in all the *communes* of his district, not leaving any town or village until he knows it by heart."[16] These chores might at any moment be interrupted by an urgent call to action from the prefect or public prosecutor on some matter of political police. There were disturbances to quell and disasters to meet. Wise counsel had to be given in anything from family disputes to complex legal issues. Our *commissaire* meanwhile checked the cleanliness of streets and the accuracy of weights and measures, not forgetting to inspect the quality of merchandise on sale, especially foodstuffs. He watched over public morality, cooperating to that end with the clergy. Always a political agent of the government, he reported on public opinion, tracked down suspected subversives, furthered official propaganda or backed governmental candidates in elections. There might be a riot or incipient rebellion against established authority. In such cases of serious public disturbance, the *commissaire* might call out the *gendarmerie*, a military police stationed in rural areas. On these occasions the *commissaire* knew what he had to do. He donned his symbolic tricolor sash, went to the scene of the riot and "three times in a loud voice" called out, as a roll of drums or blast of trumpets preceded each statement, "Obedience to the law! Force is about to be used. Let good citizens withdraw!"[17] We can understand why he was often advised that "a good *commissaire* of police arises early" and should be the last to bed.[18]

What sort of man could best perform such service? During the Second Empire many efforts were made to improve police efficiency. Many books, manuals, pamphlets, official directives, and private memoranda were written on the subject. In 1854 a professional journal began publication as *Journal of the Commissaires of Police*, devoted to the instruction and indoctrination of the *commissaires*. Calling for an upright, efficient, and informed police service, its editor predicted that the *commissariat*, becoming a force for cultural progress, "will increasingly merge into our customs and soon be counted among our most popular institutions."[19] From this journal and various manuals one can draw a character-portrait of an ideal *commissaire*.

Above all he must have an impeccable morality. He must live "a modest and dignified private life, open for all to see, transparent as the proverbial glass house. His morals are pure. His integrity meets every test."[20] Infinitely tactful, absolutely impartial, he must be able to deal with persons of all social classes at their respective levels firmly, yet sympathetically, dispensing impartial justice without distinction between rich or poor, educated or ignorant. Toward the public generally, the good *commissaire* must be considerate and never domineering: "The public is not our subordinate. Thus we must forego all offensive expressions, especially that air of the absolute master assumed by so many petty men."[21] The *commissaire's* office must be open day and night, as must its occupant's mind. Wise arbiter and perceptive conciliator, a *commissaire* must respect confidences, realizing that he was "in the civil order what the priest is to the religious order."[22]

An ideal *commissaire* was well-informed and cultivated. He must study administrative, civil, criminal, and commercial law, and "know a little of architecture and ordinary medicine." He should "study incessantly the trends of social economy," and know about traffic control, lighting, street-cleaning, and politics.[23] He must be poised, articulate, and a man of taste, spurning the vulgarities of life, "well-reared, modest, reserved with superiors and kindly toward subordinates."[24] A *commissaire* never should mix personally in public brawls, thus lowering the dignity of his station, but should rely upon his subordinate police officers in such affairs. This was not a question of bravery—a *commissaire* was eminently courageous—but rather because "the man of good society has nothing to gain by direct contact with the vulgarity of drunkards and blusterers."[25] All business must be discussed with proper dignity and discretion, never on the street, always in police headquarters, because "the *commissaire's*

office is a sanctuary."[26]

In relations with public or other administrators, the *commissaire* was urged never to forget his own administrative independence. To mayors, the judiciary, and *gendarmerie* officers he owed dignified cooperation and a pleasant mien. But he was never subservient! "We are not the *commissaires* of police of *anyone*," one manual emphasized, "we are the *law*, and the always-open eye of the government. The state has placed unlimited confidence in us by declaring us absolute masters in our own sphere. . . . Independence is the great principle underlying our authority."[27] Yet, jurisdictional disputes—"that plague of administrations"—must be scrupulously avoided.

Independence must also include avoidance of personal commitments or close friendship with members of the community. A *commissaire* must stand above all parties, factions, and local interests, acting only as "the devoted, impartial, and incorruptible agent of the government." Sometimes the point was made more forcefully: "Never, absolutely never, have a confidant in the locality. . . . Because of what he is, the *commissaire* of police has no real friends. For honorable though we may be, the very nature of our public office engenders defiance."[28] Friends should be found only among other *commissaires*. This was strongly advised as conducive to a strong *esprit de corps* that would in time make the *commissariat* "a veritable moral force that will be called—order!"[29]

The *commissaire's* independence was vital in his most fundamental duty—political police. His prime duty was to unmask "enemies of the government." To this end, he must regard nothing to be beyond his surveillance, which included "everything, without exception." He must know that "the state is a family, whose leader and father is the Emperor. It is our duty to prevent the misfortunes that could fall upon a good, but credulous and impressionable people." But crude methods were to be avoided; the rights of good citizens must be respected. "The political police requires a rare tact, delicacy, and exactness of judgment. . . . Avoid making your political police vexatious, and never earn the name of lowly police spy!"[30]

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The second in this intriguing series of articles will appear in the next issue of POLICE.*

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[25]*Ibid*, p. 155.

[26]*Ibid*, p. 143.

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★★★

TROOPER RECEIVES AWARD

Trooper Donald G. Jobe, 23, of the Illinois Tollway Patrol, becomes the sixth Illinois State Police officer in 47 years to receive the American Red Cross certificate of merit, the highest honor bestowed on an individual by the Red Cross.

When Jobe responded to an accident call in February, 1959, he found Robert Hoffman of South Bend, Indiana, with both legs severed at the knees and suffering profound shock. Jobe applied tourniquets to the injured man, treated him for shock, and called for medical assistance. Statements from witnesses and medical personnel involved certified that Jobes' prompt action saved Hoffman's life.

Jobes' award comes during the 50th anniversary of the Red Cross life saving program. Since the certificate of merit award was established in 1913, only 107 Illinois residents, including five Illinois State Police officers, have been so honored.

Left to right are: Captain Albert S. Hinds, commanding officer of the Tollway Patrol; Trooper Donald G. Jobe; Superintendent William H. Morris of the Illinois State Police; and, Raphael E. Yalden, member Illinois State Police Merit Board.

STATISTICS FOR POLICE EFFICIENCY

Better Charts for Police Reports

By John I. Griffin

GRAPHIC PRESENTATION

The founder of graphic methods in statistics, William Playfair (1759-1823), phrased the objectives of all forms of graphic presentation when he wrote "The advantage proposed, by this method, is not that of giving a more accurate statement than by figures, but it is to give a more simple and permanent idea of the gradual progress and comparative amounts, at different periods, by presenting to the eye a figure, the proportions of which correspond with the amount of the sums intended to be expressed." This rather erratic genius published charts as early as 1786 which were well executed copper-plate engravings colored by hand in three and four colors. Many contemporary charts show no improvement over this pioneer work.

In many situations a police department finds the graphic form of presentation to be most useful for internal purposes as well as when communicating with the public. An examination of departmental annual reports, recently completed as a part of a training course in statistics for police officers, revealed that many annual reports contained serious deficiencies in their graphic work, in some cases so serious as to adversely affect the value of the report. If, as is the case in many departments, the annual report is the principal public information document, it would appear very desirable that, if charts are to be used, they should be carefully prepared. It is generally agreed that a well prepared chart is the most effective form for the communication of quantitative information. Modern aids for chart preparation have rendered the task of making good charts comparatively simple.

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CHART DESIGN PRINCIPLES

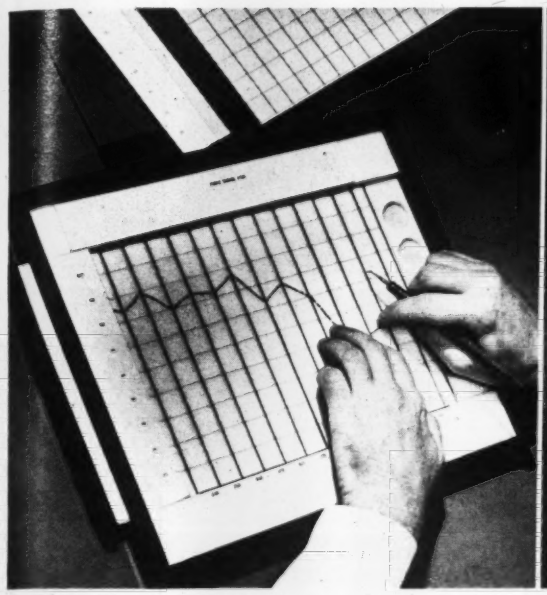
Before the actual work of laying out a chart is begun it is necessary to clearly define the purpose of the chart —what is it designed to show? Generally one relationship or the relationship between two series is most effective, not an attempt to show all possible relationships on one chart. On occasion it becomes evident to the reader of a report that charts were made just for the sake of making charts, not because the chart form tells the story *better* than the tabular data. Once the particular purpose of the chart is determined, in light of the nature of the original data and the objectives of the analysis, the chartmaker then must select the most appropriate type of chart to tell the story. All of this suggests that before charts are prepared for a police report, the chief or other senior officer should indicate the *objectives* he wishes to accomplish through the issuance of his report. Such a statement of objectives will make it possible for those responsible for the actual work of chartmaking to implement these objectives. All too often charts appear to be an afterthought.

In general charts should accomplish certain basic objectives. They should be an accurate representation of the numerical information charted. A double check to assure arithmetic accuracy in making the chart will avoid much embarrassment when readers find errors. Charts should be clear, easy to read and easily understood. Simplicity is a good principle but particularly so when the charts are to be used with a general rather than technical audience. Clear and simple charts, prepared by a police agency, are frequently used by local newspapers in the exact form in which they have been prepared. Also, charts can be shown directly on television programs, such as those designed to afford the chief an opportunity to report directly to the public. In this particular use clarity and simplicity is absolutely essential. Lastly, charts should be so designed and constructed as to be attention-getting. This objective should not be accomplished, however, by freakish methods which would destroy the statistical effectiveness of the chart.

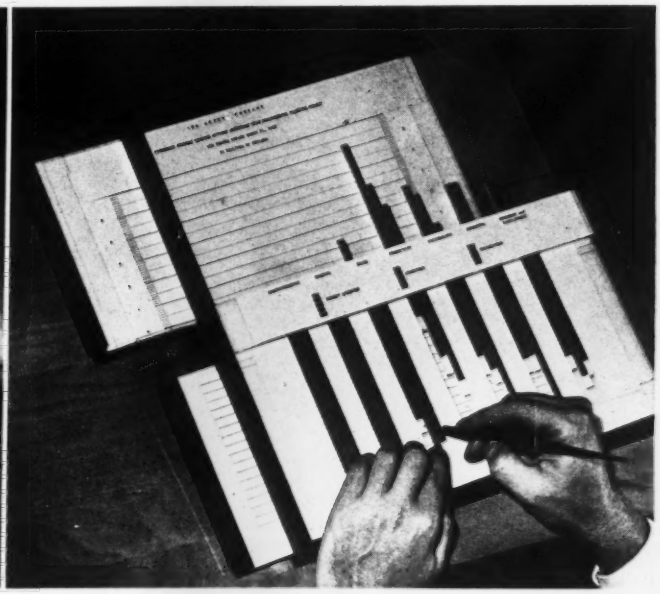
The dimensions of a chart should be determined by the ease of construction, the physical characteristics of the publication in which the chart is to appear, and the ease of reading. In general, the original size of a chart should be at least twice the size of the reduced chart when published. Reduction has the effect of sharpening the lines on the chart. The proportions of a chart should be such as to be pleasing esthetically. The ratio of 1 (short side) to 1.414 (long side) is particularly appropriate for charts. This is sometimes referred to as "root-two dimensions." In a rectangular page the long side of a chart is equal to the diagonal of a square constructed on the short side.

MAJOR TYPES OF CHARTS

Statistical charts are generally of four types: arithmetic line charts, bar and column charts, pie charts, and



Positioning the Graph Line on a Line-Graphmaster made by Planoscope Corp.

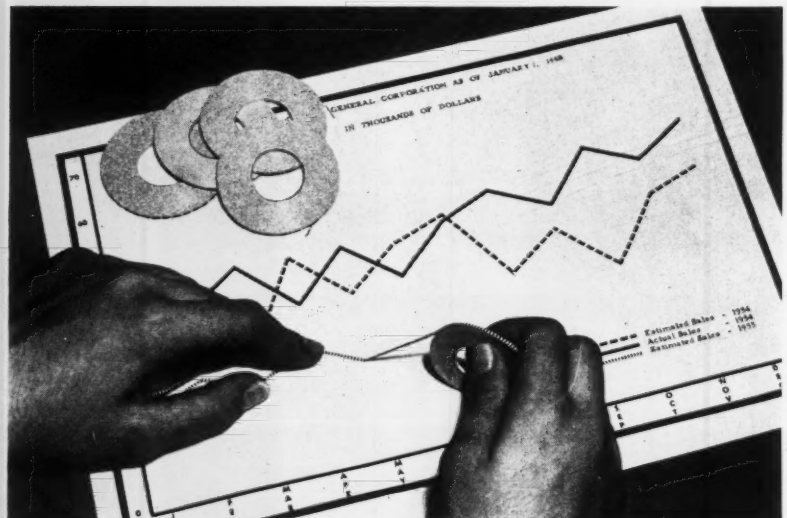


Adjusting a Bar-Graphmaster made by Planoscope Corp.

statistical maps. One of the several excellent handbooks on chart making should be available for reference during the actual process of making charts. Particular reference may be made to Calvin S. Schmid, Handbook of Graphic Presentation (1954) and Mary E. Spear, Charting Statistics (1952). The arithmetic line chart is one of the most frequently used type of chart in police work where a high percentage of the data is time series. In such a chart the units of time, days, months and years, are placed on the horizontal axis and the vertical axis is used to plot the observed data. It is of the greatest importance to show the zero position upon the vertical axis, the only exception occurring when the data represent index numbers which are usually expressed upon the base of 100. To omit the zero position from the vertical scale produces visual distortion and results in what has been called "the gee-whiz graph." For example, suppose that from one period to the next the number of arrests for homicides has increased from 100 to 115. Chop off the bottom of the chart, begin plotting at, let us say 90, and spread the vertical scale over about five inches of space, allowing one inch for each increase of five homicides. The result will be a truly frightening chart showing that the community is about to be engulfed in a crime wave! In general, the arithmetic line chart should not be used if only a few points in time are to be plotted. The use of a bar chart would be preferable.

In a bar chart the basis of comparison is one-dimensional. The length of each bar is proportional to the quantity represented. The bars must begin at the zero position. It is customary when using a bar chart to represent magnitudes at particular points in time, to erect vertical bars, so that the time dimension is on the horizontal axis and the magnitude of the observation is on the vertical axis. In the case of bar charts representing data which are not ordered in time, it is customary to use horizontal bars in declining order of magnitude. This situation would be illustrated by data classifying robberies in terms of types of premises, such as stores, filling stations, residences and the like. The categories of premises would be placed upon the vertical axis, and the number of robberies on the horizontal axis. Subdivided bar charts show categories within each bar and subdivided percentage bar charts show the categories within bars of fixed length, each bar representing 100 percent. In such bar charts it is important to avoid showing too many segments, it is not visually effective. In addition, the sequence of segments must be the same in each bar so that the reader can easily read the chart.

Pie charts, or sector charts, are used to portray the parts of a circle. In arranging the sectors of a pie chart, it is best to follow some logical sequence. It is common usage to arrange the sectors in order of size, beginning with the largest at the top and showing the others in descending order of size running clockwise. Again, the number of segments that can be shown effectively is small. If two or more pie charts are to be compared it is best to limit the comparison to changes in the percentage importance of the segments. That is, the diameters of pie charts compared with one another should be the same. Statistical maps are difficult to make and suffer from serious defects as statistical presentation devices. Frequently the geographical areas which contain the largest magnitudes are the smallest geographical areas. This



Making a Line Chart with the use of Chart-Pak Tapes.

is frequently the situation in respect to certain types of police action, which may be concentrated in small highly populated areas or in the downtown business center. When the statistician desires to portray the quantitative relationship by means of a dot map, or shaded area map, the result is frequently not effective. Of course such a relationship could be shown by converting the data to ratios, such as arrests per 1,000 population or robberies per 100 commercial establishments. The use of pictographs or pictorial charts is not to be recommended in preference to the more traditional forms. The selection of an appropriate pictorial form is often difficult and, if not done very carefully, may result in the use of a grotesque symbol which adds nothing to the presentation. If symbols are to be used, the chartmaker should never employ larger symbols to represent larger magnitudes, but rather should use more identical symbols of the same size. In effect, therefore, a pictograph is really nothing but a bar chart.

NEW EQUIPMENT TO FACILITATE CHARTMAKING

Traditionally chartmaking has been done by statistical draftsmen or by persons with some training in the use of drafting instruments. In organizations like the typical police agency, such professional skills are usually not available nor would the employment of such specialists be justified. In recent years, with the spread of graphic presentation to all levels of business and government, a number of manufacturers have produced equipment which makes it possible for unskilled personnel to produce acceptable charts at low cost. The development of precision slit and printed pressure sensitive materials in tape, rectangular and sheet form for graphic presentation, has been a great boon. Perhaps the best-known manufacturer of this type of material is Chart-Pak, Inc., of Leeds, Massachusetts. This firm produces tapes of many widths, designs and colors for use in preparing all types of charts. In addition borders, standard symbols, and pictographs are available. The photograph shows how a chart can be made with the use of this equipment. Ruled planning boards are available to make it easy to position tapes and components accurately. Color can easily be incorporated in graphic presentation by using color tapes or transparent color sheets, the latter frequently employed in the form of overlays.

One of the most troublesome tasks in chartmaking is the lettering of the title, scale captions, source note, and other parts of a chart. While lettering sets have long been available, more recently adhesive letters have become available in various sizes and styles. Any careful worker can arrange neat lettering with the use of such prepared letters. One of the best types is Planotype, which consists of thin, pliable plastic letters which are sold arranged in frequency distribution alphabets on aluminum sheets to which they stick lightly. These letters (available from Planoscope Corp., New York 17, N. Y.) are made in colors and can be re-used many times. They are lifted from the aluminum storage sheet and aligned on a lay-out sheet and then transferred to the chart. Planoscope Corp. has recently developed interesting mechanical charts that do not have to be drawn. They have real bars, cords for lines, and movable disks for pie charts. The photograph shows the bar-graphmaster which creates through the manipulation of movable bars, a bar chart in color ready for immediate display or reproduction by any conventional means. This device is made of plastic and can be used over and over again. Making a very professional appearance, such a device might be on display in the office of a chief, showing daily activity, or even being adjusted during the course of a day to represent a rapidly changing situation. Similar devices in the form of a line diagram, make use of cords of various thickness which can be positioned instantaneously in a variety of ways on pre-grooved tracks. Such a device permits the preparation of a line chart in a few minutes. ★★★

Criminal Statistics Courses in India

The Department of Criminology, Juvenile Delinquency, and Correctional Administration of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences at Bombay, India, has recently introduced into their curriculum a course on Criminal and Correctional Statistics. ★★★

Police Supervision and School Supervision A Comparison

By Lt. Col. Clifford L. Scott

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of three articles dealing with the problems of supervision in police organization. The first article appeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

MODERN Police Departments are generally in accord as to the methods of selection of supervisors. Most large departments, both city and state, select their supervisors on a competitive basis by examination. A patrolman is required to serve a minimum number of months before becoming eligible to take the examination for promotion to the next higher rank. This eliminates to a great extent the old "bugaboo" of the policeman of many years ago when a change of administration brought a flood of demotions and promotions. A good example of this system of promotions is exemplified in the Los Angeles Police Department, New York City Police Department, and most other departments where politics per se, has given way to merit in this matter.[18]

Both schools and police departments are tax supported services (except of course special police and private or parochial schools), both of these professions are vital parts of our society, and both of them are somewhat influenced by the political trends from election to election at least policy wise.

The teaching profession (and this is the author's opinion) could benefit a great deal by coming down to reality in the real life every day drama so familiar to the policeman. Teachers are generally a nice and often rather naive group of people. There is such a thing as being too nice however, and any veteran policeman can attest to the cases of violent crime, exhibitionism, homosexuality, incest, and other forms of depravity in every large community. These cases often are shocking to teachers. In fact, Lee and Lee in their text, *The Child and His Development,* do not consider homosexuality, narcotics, exhibitionism, alcoholism, and similar subjects important enough to even include them in their index and this is a text designed to teach teachers. Burton and Brueckner in *Supervision A Social Process* prefer to ignore the seamy side of life too. The author has not found a single case of a text book of school supervision where these problems of criminality are discussed. The author doubts if the average high school or elementary school teacher would know a stick of marijuana from a "makins" cigarette.

The author submits the thought that it should be the duty of every school supervisor and every police administrator to maintain the closest possible liaison in the interest of a realistic approach to a realistic problem. How can any school today ignore narcotics, homosexuality, or venereal disease?

Only the blind could orbit in a world of Buzz Groups, Sociodramas, Role Playing, Symposiums, Round Tables and other Processes without giving a sidelong glance at the world about us where pushers still sell narcotics and exhibitionists still annoy schoolgirls and switch blades are still sharp. There must be a place for naivete but not in a school system or in a supervisor or in a text book.

Since human relations play such a vital part in supervision, a supervisor must never overlook each person under his supervision. Sometimes the quiet unassuming timid ones get lost. It is the supervisor's job to rotate his people as much as he can in assignments, duties, and discussions. The policeman for instance can get so used to doing the same thing night after night that he gets to where he is "in-a-rut" so to speak. As Captain Johnson has so aptly put it, the patrolman with twenty years on the force and still a patrolman has not had twenty years of experience, but one year of experience repeated twenty times.[19] This could easily be partly the supervisor's fault.

This same problem can arise in a school system if a supervisor or a system is not fulfilling its mission. As Burton and Brueckner say: "The primary function of supervisors of all types is leadership, plus the encouragement and recognition of leadership in any other person either on the professional staff or among the community participants."[20]

If then we are to eliminate the policeman and the teacher with one year's experience repeated twenty times, a system of evaluation must be in constant use by the supervisor.

Elsbree and McNally say that a school supervisor rates: (1) To assist in the elimination of incompetent teachers; (2) To improve teaching by motivation, and (3) To facilitate administration of salary schedules and as a part of the promotion plan.[21]

They go on to say that evaluation should be comprehensive, co-operative, based on valid criteria, diagnostic, continuous, and functional.[22]

O. W. Wilson says that "the appraisal of individual policemen is extremely difficult" and he goes on to say that a rating procedure must be simple and objective. Dean Wil-

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son lists three kinds of information sought:

1. Incidents that indicate the possession or lack of desirable qualities. Supervisors should be alert to observe and report significant occurrences.

2. The opinions of supervising officers regarding the presence or absence of desirable qualities and the less tangible personal characteristics of subordinates. A rating system should be used to record and analyze these views.

3. Accomplishments (for comparison).[23]

A number of factors are considered when reporting a significant incident. They are Loyalty, Integrity, Moral courage, Physical courage, Morality, Fairness, Reliability, Judgement, Decisiveness, Emotional stability, Self-confidence, Initiative, Willingness, Ability to get along with others, Persuasiveness, Sympathetic, Unprejudiced, Interest at work, Enthusiasm, Alertness, Physical or nervous energy, Will to do, and Citizen complaints.

The service rating of a police officer by his supervisor considers Judgement, Decisiveness and Self-confidence, Reliability, Emotional stability, Resourcefulness and initiative, Ability to get along with people, Work attitude and enthusiasm, Alertness, Energy and Will-to-do, Requires little supervision, Probable success as supervisor, and Overall ability. Other factors are considered too such as "odor of alcohol on breath" and punctuality.[24]

It is obvious that a police officer is under continual evaluation by his superiors. It is obvious too that all of these factors do not apply to evaluation in a school because of the different missions of the school and police.

The author feels that the general field of supervision in all areas has minimized some of the more important factors which must be considered in supervision. One of these factors is morale. Burton and Brueckner list seven factors making for good human relations which they believe is the most significant factor as a basis of morale:[25]

a. Participation in policy-making, defining goals and problems, planning and carrying out plans.

b. Recognition by fellow-workers, acceptance by them of one's contributions.

c. Stimulating leadership which encourages emergent leadership, co-operative effort, and participation by all.

d. Consistent policies under which to work, consistent treatment from status leaders.

e. Achievement, production of useful results.

f. Satisfaction from, and security in one's work which comes from fair treatment, participation, achievement, and recognition.

g. General administration which is democratic, sympathetic, and stimulating.

Admiral Ben Moreell in speaking of the morale of the Seabees in World War II lists three elements which he considers worthy of special note: (1) Satisfaction in a work program; (2) Mutual confidence between leaders and ranks, and (3) Conviction that all together we're striving for something more important than ourselves.[26]

There have been volumes written about morale and almost every author has a different point of view as to what it is, how to build it, and how to measure it. Roethlisberger seems to come closest to an agreement when he says that — "Like many such words, the word 'morale' jumps into prominence when it is either conspicuously absent or conspicuously present."[27]

With all the talk about what it is and why, this much is certain—it is never constant. It is either rising or dropping, increasing or decreasing.[28]

We are faced in texts and references with many recommended practices designed to keep it high. The author would like to get down to something less vague and to elaborate for a moment on several methods of assisting in the morale problem. (Any one who says mo-

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rale is no problem has never been a supervisor.)

There is probably no profession which is the recipient of more complaints from the people it serves than the police profession. The schools too are the recipient of complaints from parents, students, and "do-gooder" groups. That the policeman and the teacher are complained against is a matter of common knowledge. The handling of these complaints by a supervisor can make the difference between high morale and despair.

No supervisor should ever make a case against a subordinate without hearing both sides of the story. Except in cases where moral turpitude is evident, the supervisor should interview his own subordinate first.[29] It may take a few minutes longer but it pays off with an upsurge of morale throughout his unit. His people feel that he is with them. A part of their team.

Many complaints against police are "crank" complaints and the same cranks are the ones who complain against teachers. Usually but few of these crank complaints are well founded and even if they are, the supervisor should make every effort to "get-the-story" from his own subordinate first.[30]

This has been found to be the fairest, most just, and most "acceptable-to-all" policy for the handling of complaints. It is a great morale "booster."

Another method or policy in keeping morale high is the implied duty of the leader and supervisor to take care of his men.

In the military profession this is of course a matter of necessity. A commander checking a man's socks for holes knows that many a casualty has been caused by a blister on the heel and when he checks a weapon for care, he knows that many a grave lies today on foreign soil because a leader failed to check these things and failed to take care of his men.[31]

"Taking care" of a policeman or a teacher hardly includes the checking of socks for holes nor does it include joining the boys, as Johnson says, in the Squad-Room Setback game because the good supervisor knows and recognizes that fine line where familiarity starts breeding contempt.[32]

A police supervisor should get to know every one of his subordinates by their first name. He should take an interest in their personal problems, their disappointments, their joys, and be always ready to assist them.[33]

An interesting story is told of one of our best known Corps Commanders in the Pacific War during World War II. It is said of him that he had a rule that if any man serving under him, or any man he knew in the service, however unimportant, was promoted or given any other recognition, he would write a letter to the man's wife or mother, saying how proud he felt. He was not a great tactician or strategist but, because of the little things he did, men loved him and would ride to hell for him, and the collective moral strength became the bastion of his professional success.[34]

A supervisor should take as much of the routine paper work and administrative problems from his subordinates as possible. He should not burden them by delegating undesirable tasks of this sort which he can do himself. He should be concerned with their promotions, their training, and their pride in their job.[35]

It seems to the author that the school supervisor should do all of these things and more. He should (like the police sergeant) be the middleman between the policy makers and the man who executes the plan and as such he should represent his subordinates in their requests for new equipment, adequate facilities, and other legitimate requests.

Everyone who has ever been a supervisor knows that people come in a variety of emotional states. No one set policy will work.

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29 Standard Operating Procedure: Office of the Provost Marshal, 5th Infantry Division. 1954-55-56-57.

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Policy Letter: Office of the Air Provost Marshal, 13th Air Force. 1949-1950.

Policy File: Police Department, San Antonio, Texas. 1946-47.

30 *Ibid.*

31 United States Army Training Film, *The Late Company B.*

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34 *The Armed Forces Officer*, p. 72.

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SPECIAL AGENTS SECTION

Edited by John Richelieu Davis

The Use Of The Polygraph In Private Industry

Several years ago I instituted a program of polygraph examinations for a few of my industrial client's concerns. The purpose of this program was to disclose and control dishonest acts of guard personnel and company employees.

After a year or two, I became discouraged as to the value of the instrument. A majority of the reports contained "Inconclusives," "Guilty knowledge," etc., with no actual admissions which I could "put my teeth into." As a result of this experience, I soon eliminated the use of the polygraph from my sphere of activity.

A few years later I had a call from Mr. Leonard Harrelson, President of the Keeler Institute, offering his services. Shortly thereafter I encountered a very difficult case, so I gambled on Harrelson to administer a polygraph examination to the subject. A very substantial confession was obtained that resulted in the disclosure of a theft ring which had caused the loss of over $100,000.00 to my client. From that time on, I have never hesitated to utilize the polygraph.

I have learned one salient fact—the best polygraph in the world is scientifically worthless in the hands of the untrained or poorly trained operator. It is worse than worthless because of its negative lethal effect on the reputation and future well-being of persons directly and indirectly involved in polygraph examinations conducted by the unqualified operator. Too, degrees of skill and competency exist among polygraph examiners just as they do among doctors, lawyers, or investigators.

The June 18, 1960, issue of "Business Week" carried a comprehensive story of the uses of the lie detector in business. The article pointed out the tremendous growing security consciousness in business and stressed the fact that employee dishonesty is a huge management problem today. As a result of this increasing concern, more and more businesses are adopting the polygraph as an aid in controlling this problem.

At the present time only a minority of company security officers are utilizing the polygraph. However, increasing numbers are becoming more interested in this aid to their work. In the past few months this section has received a considerable number of inquiries posing such questions as, "Where can I obtain the services of a polygraph examiner?" and, "How can I ascertain his competency?" Before we attempt to answer these questions, it might be well to review the essentials of this apparatus.

This instrument used for diagnosing deception consists of two major data transmitting mediums known as the Cardio-sphygmograph and the Pneumograph sections. The Cardio section records the subject's pulse rate, pulse wave amplitude, and relative blood pressures, together with changes in each. The Pneumograph section records the subject's breathing movements and changes therein. In addition to these two major sections, there is an auxiliary section known as the Galvanograph which records the subject's sweat gland activities. The recordings made by the two major sections work very briefly in the following manner: A mental conflict produced by certain stimuli triggers an emotion within the subject. The emotion with which we are primarily concerned in a polygraph examination is the emotion of fear. The triggering of this emotion in turn stimulates the sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system which generates certain physiological responses, including changes in the circulatory and respiratory, over which the subject has no control. For example, a liar may be able to keep a straight face, convincing tone of voice, etc., but he cannot prevent the guilt fear emotion from emitting in his heart, lungs, etc.

Leonarde Keeler and other pioneers devised a method whereby certain questions were interspersed in a series to establish the subject's norm tracing plus excitement level when asked inconsequential questions and any change from that norm tracing plus excitement level when questioned about the matter under examination. This makes it possible for the examiner to diagnose deception by proper interpretation of this change, where present. This type test is known as the Irrelevant-Relevant test, and is perhaps the most widely used in the field today.

Address: John R. Davis, 341 East Ohio Street Chicago 11, Illinois.

8 New Books in This Field

HOMICIDE IN AN URBAN COMMUNITY by Robert Bensing and Oliver Schroeder, Jr., *both of Western Reserve Univ.* A study in depth of an ancient crime in a modern setting. What human incidents lead to killings? What social environments breed homicides? Are negroes and whites given equal protection of the law? This book answers your thousand and one questions on the legal and social facts of homicide. Photographs, maps, tables, and graphs present the raw facts of murder in a typical northern, urban, industrial area. **Pub. date Sept. '60, 208 pp., 78 il., 84 tables, $8.75**

MODERN RETAIL SECURITY by S. J. Curtis, *The J. L. Hudson Co., Detroit, Mich.* As one reader so aptly put it "MODERN RETAIL SECURITY is the first really new idea for increasing store profits since the innovation of self-service." It fairly crackles with creative ideas for career men and women in public and private law enforcement. Eighty-eight actual case histories from the files of retail stores across the country illustrate some of the problems of store theft. Includes a detailed description of just how to set up and operate a security organization with complete job descriptions for each staff member. **Pub. date Sept. '60, 1152 pp., 20 il.**

STOPPING VEHICLES AND OCCUPANT CONTROL by Beryl Langford, *Michigan State Univ.;* **Robert Sheehan,** *Northeastern Univ.;* **Thomas F. Lobkovich,** *General Motors Corp.;* and **Paul J. Watson,** *U. S. Treasury Dept.* Whether a police officer stops John Q. Public or the Dillinger of the day, he has a distinct advantage if he follows the basic principles presented here. The authors believe that this book will be a worthwhile endeavor if it is influential in saving the life of just one police officer. That officer might be you. **Pub. date Aug. '60, 104 pp., 67 il., $5.00**

POLICE OPERATIONS: Policies and Procedures by John P. Kenney and John B. Williams, *both of Univ. of So. California.* The authors, professional police educators and trained policemen, pool their vast experience and that of their students of more than a decade to present a workable operational police manual. Principal sections cover police policies, procedures, and organization. **Pub. date Nov. '60.**

THE MURDEROUS TRAIL OF CHARLES STARKWEATHER by James J. Reinhardt, *Univ. Nebraska.* Few Americans have forgotten Charles Starkweather's murderous trail of eleven victims. What makes the difference between a useful citizen and a murderer? To answer this question Professor Reinhardt explored every facet of this strangely marked personality. The unrealistic nature of Starkweather's thinking about himself and the world around him shed new light on the complex problems facing those who deal day after day with the potential killer in modern society. **Pub. date Aug. '60, 192 pp., 22 il. (Police Science Series), $5.75**

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF DRIVING: Factors of Traffic Enforcement by A. R. Lauer, *Iowa State Univ.* For the first time results of a continuous program of research are presented under one cover. The findings — spanning almost an academic generation—include data on background of driving research, psychology in traffic control, fundamental factors of safe driving, driver education, driving vision, driver evaluation techniques, making license plates more effective, and real and imaginary causes of highway and traffic accidents. **Pub. date Aug. '60 352 pp., 13 il., $10.50**

LEADERSHIP FOR THE POLICE SUPERVISOR by Clifford L. Scott and Bill Garrett, *both of Military Police Corps, United States Army.* A neat package of leadership principles in one small, easy-to-ready, comfortable book. There are no involved charts to confuse. No statistical mumbo-jumbo. No "do this or do that" directions either. This is an overview of the principles and practices of leadership as they pertain to the patrolman, segreant, lieutenant, captain, inspector, and chief. Humorously illustrated with drawings by Artist Bill Garrett. **Pub. date Sept. '60, 212 pp., 67 il. (Police Science Series), $7.50**

COMBAT SHOOTING FOR POLICE by Paul B. Weston, *N.Y.C. Police Dept. (Ret.)* Chief Weston tackles the massive problem of learning how to shoot when the chips are down—when life itself is at stake. Ability with a gun is keyed to "this is your life" needs of police officers. Fundamental principles of grip, sights, aim, and trigger pressure are summarized. Highlighted throughout by action-packed photographs and drawings. Reproduced in a size large enough to insure viewing ease and no loss of detail. **Pub. date Oct. '60, 224 pp., 103 il. (Police Science Series)**

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ACCURACY

Many operators testify that this apparatus is accurate from a figure of 80% to 99%. Frankly, it is difficult to assign any so-called percentage of accuracy to the polygraph for the simple reason we do not attempt to assign any percentage of accuracy to the X-Ray or Stethoscope in the medical field. The greatest degree of success or failure of the examination does not depend upon the instrument, assuming that it meets certain specified requirements and is mechanically sound, as its effectiveness is directly correlated with the qualifications of the examiner and the cooperation of the investigator. To assign any accuracy to this instrument, one must consider these two influencing factors.

USES

To the company security officer the most outstanding use of the polygraph is that of pre-employment screening of his security force and periodic testing thereafter.

Everyone is aware that the most trusted employee of an industry is that of the guard. This individual has complete freedom of movement to any area of the plant. It is an embarrassing situation when a security manager discovers that a member of his department is dishonest. Securing honest men of integrity for this position is of the utmost importance, and equally important is having him remain honest.

There is no better screening device than the polygraph for this category of use. I have often seen security personnel highly recommended from the results of a background investigation, only to have them rejected by the polygraph examiner who was able to uncover undetected crimes that they had committed. This polygraph examination is a requirement of every member of my organization. Due to the larceny weakness in almost every human being, it is not uncommon to find a guard tempted to take a small minor tool of insignificant value. Whenever such losses occur, regardless of their value, I immediately at great expense subject the security force to a test. This procedure establishes a control immediately in preventing the minor larcenies from growing into bigger ones.

Since the majority of financial losses to industrial concerns and retail stores are incurred through sales clerks, cashiers, shipping and receiving personnel, in order to achieve good security it is almost mandatory to subject this category of personnel to examinations as we do the security force itself. This is a very effective security control, as it is almost impossible to be in a position of observing every single action of an employee. The periodic testing maintains this control for the company.

Many companies maintain a policy of refusing to employ individuals who possess a criminal arrest record regardless of the circumstances and date of same. I have advocated to my clients that a man guilty of wrong-doing in his early life is certainly entitled to the chance of redeeming himself. The most satisfactory manner in which to determine if that individual is worthy of a second chance is to submit him to a polygraph examination with the explicit purpose of establishing the existence of a clean or dishonest record during the interim of his past encounter with the arresting officials. It is my belief that such a procedure certainly is fairer to the applicant than to blindly reject him.

PREVENTION—OUR OBJECTIVE

The security officer who directs his attention and efforts to apprehension is not producing a productive end product for his company. Apprehension does not deter dishonesty. For every dishonest employee discharged, another replaces him. It is our responsibility to *prevent* losses before they occur. The average employee of a firm is by no means a hardened criminal, but merely an individual who has allowed temptation to enter his mind. My Experience has shown that when such dishonest employees have been detected, it has been a successful policy to the company and to the individual himself to give him an opportunity to continue in his position with the *one condition* that he submits to a polygraph examination periodically thereafter. I do not recall of such an employee failing on subsequent examinations. Rather, they have become a more devoted and loyal employee.

SELECTING THE EXAMINER

In answer to the question so often posed, "How do I select a competent examiner?", I suggest that the security officer first establishes whether or not his prospective examiner has completed a period of formal training at a recognized institution. The most outstanding of these training institutions are the Keeler Polygraph Institute in Chicago, the John Reid Associates also of Chicago, and the Camp Gordon U.S. Army Polygraph School. There are probably other schools existing which may also be well qualified; however, I am not acquainted with their curriculum at this time. Second, a discreet inquiry should be made of his integrity, competency, and experience record. This may be obtained in the same manner in which one would conduct a background investigation for an applicant in the executive department.

It is important to determine whether or not the apparatus the examiner uses is that of a proper make, consisting of a Cardio-sphygmograph, Pneumograph, and any other auxiliary attachments. The most familiar instruments are the Stoetling Deceptograph and the Keeler instrument which are both manufactured in Chicago.

I have had inquiries as to the advisability of a security officer himself becoming a polygraph examiner. Frankly, I feel more secure in obtaining an examiner who devotes his full time to this specialized profession. It is with the same thought that I would have of expecting the company nurse to perform in the capacity of a graduate medical doctor. For self-education and understanding, I do not discourage the security officer from pursuing a study of the polygraph technique, but it is much more effective if administered by an outside full time examiner. ★★★

POLYGRAPH
and INTERROGATION

To establish and maintain a standard of ethics and professional qualifications

Edited by ROBERT D. STEEL

Interviews, Interrogations and Use of the Polygraph

By Carroll S. Price

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the fourth in a series of five articles concerned with successful techniques in the INTERVIEW AND INTERROGATION OF SUSPECTS, COMPLAINANTS AND WITNESSES. The third appeared in the previous issue of POLICE; the fifth and final article will follow in the next issue.*

A study of the history of criminal interrogation reveals that since 1800 more and more extra-judicial confessions were being held as inadmissible by the courts of this country. It came to be realized that if a confession was to be allowed as evidence in court, then force, duress or promise of reward could not be used to obtain it. Today, extra-judicial confessions can be used in court if they were obtained legally. In Army Court Martials it is necessary that the prosecution introduce evidence to the effect that the confession was obtained legally before it can be admitted, even in the event there is no objection from the defense. This trend has had several effects upon police agencies throughout the country. One effect that has been felt in most areas is that no longer can police use brutal or inhumane methods to obtain confessions. Knowing that these methods are no longer condoned or permitted by the courts and the public, a search was made to obtain other methods that would produce the same results while employing a more satisfactory technique.

One method, now in general use about 20 years, is a scientific means of interrogation utilizing a polygraph or lie detector. This instrument is a device used to measure and record blood pressure, respiration and the galvanic skin reflex. Knowing that emotional changes are closely associated with these three physiological factors, this instrument is used to determine the truthfulness of a suspect's story. Scientific interrogation as it is used today gives about the same results as the old methods and in addition:

a. If a confession is obtained, it usually is more reliable.
b. The confession is more likely to be admitted as evidence in court.
c. The method of interrogation is more humane.
d. This type of interrogation helps maintain better public relations and promotes cooperation between the policeman and John Q. Public.
e. This type of interrogation lessens the possibility of a damage suit or criminal charges being filed against the policeman.
f. The Polygraph test usually reduces the amount of investigation necessary to complete a case (although the polygraph still isn't a substitute for adequate investigation and the investigator must be careful not to fall into the rut of using it as a crutch or excuse not to do his job thoroughly and effectively.)

A polygraph test is useful during the course of an investigation to determine if the guilty is lying and/or if the innocent person is really telling the truth. The screening of suspects may save considerable time for the investigator. Guilty suspects frequently admit their guilt after taking the Polygraph test or during the follow-up interrogation which is an important part of the test. In either event the investigator will have a better idea about the facts in the case and about what course of action he may want to follow.

Objectives

The lie detector examiner tries to:

1. Ascertain if a person is telling the truth;
2. Obtain leads to the facts of an offense, the location of stolen goods, and the whereabouts of wanted persons;
3. Compare conflicting statements;

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4. Obtain the facts after a test indicates that a person lied or tried to cover up what he knew.

Basis for Polygraph Tests

The test consists of a series of questions asked a person and the simultaneous recording by the lie detecting set of the person's body changes in response to these questions. The test is based on the fact that physical changes occur in a normal person who lies. The test does not actually detect lies, but rather it produces a record (chart) of the physiological by-products of a person's emotional responses during the test. By examining this chart, the examiner may detect a person's attempt to tell a lie and to conceal it. The emotional stability of a person will determine how much his fears will affect the test results.

The guilty person:

1. Fear usually causes a person's reactions to the lie detector test. The guilty person may fear being caught in a lie, ruined socially, or imprisoned.
2. The guilty person may feel certain that the test will reveal his attempt to lie, but he may not want to appear guilty by refusing to take the test. When he is in this frame of mind, he may tell the truth, even before the test starts.
3. The guilty person's fears usually tend to increase during the test; his reactions usually become stronger as the test progresses.

The innocent person:

1. Generally the innocent person tries to cooperate because he wants to prove his innocence. He may be curious and volunteer just to find out what the test is about. He may sometimes want to attract attention to himself.
2. The fears and nervousness of an innocent person usually tend to decrease during the test.

Selecting Persons to Take the Test

Certain mental and physical conditions may influence a person's stability as a test subject and affect his reactions during the test. The Polygraph examiner decides whether or not a person is fit to take a test but he will not attempt a psychiatric or physical diagnosis of the subject. It is important that he consider the following factors:

1. Physical ills—permanent
   a. Certain heart conditions and breathing disorders sometimes make a person unfit to take the test. The condition may be recognized during the early part of the test.
   b. A highly nervous or excitable person may be unfit
   c. A dope addict or chronic alcoholic
2. Physical ills—temporary
   a. A person who is drunk, sick, injured, or suffering pain or discomfort is usually unfit to be tested.
   b. Extreme physical or mental fatigue and certain ills, such as colds, coughing spells, hay fever, asthma, hiccups, and severe allergies, may influence a person's suitability as a test subject.
3. Mental ills—permanent
   a. Polygraph charts of mentally deficient and insane persons usually cannot be interpreted. Persons of very low intelligence may be difficult to test successfully. Often they display little moral sense of fear of being caught in an offense or lie. It may be difficult, or impossible, for them to tell the difference between the truth and a lie, or to understand the purpose and procedure of the test. However, it is not generally possible to recognize these deficiencies without actually running preliminary tests. If there is any doubt in this respect bring the subject in for the test, it might be worth a try. There is considerable misunderstanding about persons who are thought to be unintelligent (this usually means persons who have not had very much education) being unsuitable for Polygraph tests. This is not entirely true and any person with near normal intelligence and able to recognize right from wrong can ordinarily be examined on the Polygraph with some degree of success.
   b. If the investigator or the examiner believes the subject to be mentally deficient, insane, or physically ill; examination of the subject by a competent psychiatrist or psychologist should be considered.

Other factors to be considered

1. A person who has been improperly treated or questioned during apprehension or detention prior to the test may not be a fit subject for the test. A person who is unduly emotionally upset or under the influence of a sedative should not be tested while he is in such a condition.
2. A person who is unduly afraid of the test may also present a problem. Proper treatment and a clear explanation of the testing procedure will usually overcome these difficulties.
3. Some persons may seek to evade or postpone the test by pretending a mental or physical illness.

Treatment of the Subject

The success of a test depends in part on how the person was treated before he was asked to take the test, how he was asked to take the test, and how he was treated while awaiting the test.

Preliminary interrogation

1. A proper interview or interrogation seldom affects the test results. However, the investigator should use common sense about the length and persistence of questioning. A person should be made to feel that he is suspected because of the evidence rather than because of any personal factors.

2. The investigator should not reveal details of an offense to a person who may be asked to take the test. Some of these details may be of value to the examiner in formulating the test questions. To properly execute a "peak of tension" test there must be one or more factual details about the crime that only the guilty person would know.
3. Tricks and bluffs must not be attempted. If a person discovers a trick or bluff, he may become so upset and suspicious that, even though he takes it, the purpose of the test may be defeated before it is even started.

Asking a Person to Take the Test

1. Talk to the person openly and freely about the test. He should learn enough about the test so that he can describe it to a person who knows little or nothing about it, or who has been misinformed about the test.
2. Suggest the test as a means for the suspect to indicate his innocence. The investigator should not suggest that a refusal to take the test will indicate guilt.
3. Stress the test's capability for indicating, through the recorded responses, whether a person is telling the truth.
4. Assure each person that the examiner is a qualified person who is impartial toward all the persons involved in the case.
5. Avoid any claim for the machine or the examiner that is not backed by fact.

Treatment during detention

1. A person's habits should not be upset more than necessary. The test should be scheduled promptly to avoid long delays.
2. Suspects in the same case should not be detained in the same cell or allowed to communicate with each other. Each suspect should be fed on time and given opportunities for rest and exercise.
3. No reference should be made to a person's probable guilt or innocence before the test is administered.
4. The use of certain drugs by a person may affect his reactions on the lie detector. If a drug has been prescribed for a person by a doctor, no effort should be made to stop him from taking it. The examiner should be told, in each case, when a person has recently taken a drug or medicine.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The third in this series of five articles on INTERVIEWS, INTERROGATION AND USE OF THE POLYGRAPH, appeared in the last issue of POLICE. The fifth and final article will follow in the next issue.* ★★★

Keeler Polygraph Representative

Richard W. Inman, president of Associated Research, Inc., announces that the F. Morton Pitt Company of 135 E. Las Tunas Drive, San Gabriel, California, has been appointed sales and service representative for the Keeler Polygraph Division. They will cover the states of California, Oregon and Washington.

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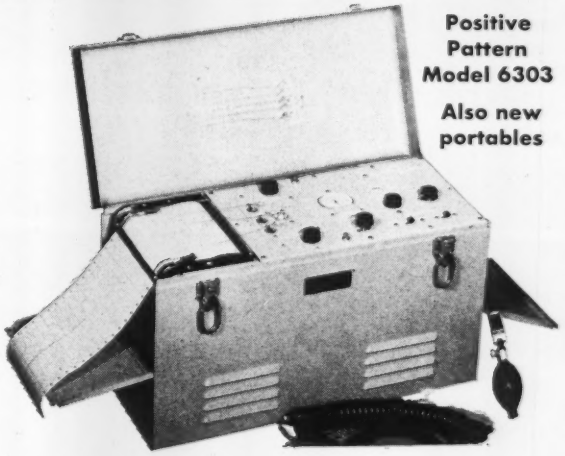

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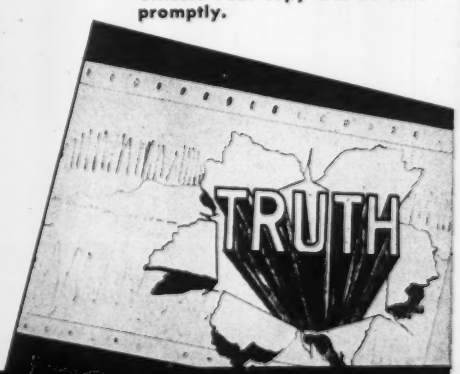

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KNOW YOUR LAW

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What About Extradition?

By Francis C. Sullivan

WITH the development of our modern means of transportation in the United States, the problem of apprehending the person who commits a crime in one state and then flees to another has become much more common than in the past. The legal solution to this problem is known as extradition—the surrender by one state to another of a person charged with or convicted of an offense in the requesting state.

This problem arises because of the fact that the laws of one state have no application or effect in other states, and one state cannot therefore attempt to enforce its laws in the territory of another through arrest or by other means. Extradition is controlled basically by provisions of the United States Constitution and federal statutes, but there are agreements betwen various states extending the principle of extradition and state statutes creating procedures under which extradition is accomplished. The purpose of all of these provisions is to assure that no person who has been accused or convicted of committing a crime in one state may escape justice by fleeing to another state and there obtaining asylum.

Extradition may operate only where the governor of one state requests the surrender of a fugitive from the governor of the state in which the person is found. This request, generally known as a requisition, consists of a written demand for the delivery of a person who is alleged to be a fugitive from justice. At this point it should be noted that the United States Constitution defines extraditable offenses as "treason, felony or other crime," thus including every type and kind of crime, including misdemeanors. The Interstate Extradition Conference of 1877, however, determined that petty offenses should not be the subject of extradition except in special cases where aggravating circumstances are present. The alleged crime must be definite and specific and must be a violation of the laws of the demanding state, but it is immaterial whether the act is criminal in the state in which the accused is found.

In order to justify the use of extradition, the accused must have been formally charged with the crime in the demanding state, must have fled from that state to avoid prosecution or punishment, and must refuse to return voluntarily to the charging state. The asylum state may not inquire into the validity of the law making the particular act criminal in the demanding state, nor into the sufficiency of the charge against the accused. The manner, purpose and motive for the departure of the accused from the demanding state are generally immaterial, and this is true even if the person departed from the demanding state with the consent or knowledge of the authorities, so long as he now refuses to return to answer the charge.

The requisition must allege that the accused is a fugitive from justice—that he was present in the demanding state at the time of the commission of the crime or incurred guilt within such state at that time, and that formal criminal proceedings have been commenced against him—and must be accompanied by a certified copy of the indictment or other document charging the accused with the crime. These documents furnish the authority upon which the governor of the asylum state may order the extradition of an accused.

The governor of the asylum state may, therefore, determine only two questions: whether the accused has been charged with a violation of the laws of the demanding state, and whether the accused is a fugitive from justice. These questions are generally determined from the results of a hearing conducted according to the procedures established by the laws of the asylum state. These provisions vary widely from state to state, and no attempt will be made to discuss specific methods created to convince the governor of the fact that extradition is warranted in a particular case.

The next step in the extradition process is the issuance of a governor's warrant for the arrest of the accused and his surrender to the authorities of the demanding state. This warrant must indicate that all of the necessary legal requirements have been complied with. This is generally accomplished by a recital that the governor of a named state has demanded the surrender of the named accused as a fugitive from justice, and that such demand was supported by a copy of the charge, properly certified and authenticated, specifying the particular offense alleged against the accused. The warrant must, of course, comply with any additional statutory requirements of the asylum state. After the accused has been arrested he is delivered to the custody

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of an officer appointed by the governor of the demanding state for that purpose, this officer being charged with the duty of returning the accused to the demanding state to await further proceedings.

Essentially extradition is a simple process, but since it accomplishes an unusual purpose—the arrest of a person in one state for delivery to the authorities of another—the requirements must be strictly observed. This is not the area in which short-cuts or experiments should be attempted, but rather extradition should be viewed as a most valuable aid to effective law enforcement and the legal requirements observed accordingly.

STUDENT PATROLMEN

Twenty-one Southern Illinois University students make up a new uniformed brigade working under Southern Illinois University's campus police force to serve visitors and uphold safety regulations.

Members of the Saluki Patrol receive regular student wages for a variety of duties, from chauffeuring to directing campus traffic.

"I don't know of any other college or university in the country with a similar setup," says Thomas Leffler, SIU's security officer.

A once-a-week training school conducted by Leffler stresses courtesy, teaches efficiency, and gives the student patrolmen information on Illinois laws and some insights into police work.

The Saluki Patrol is most in evidence from 5 p. m. to 12 midnight, when the blue-clad student wearing an identifying shoulder patch walk a regular beat along paved paths in wooded areas of the campus, or direct the heavy volume of traffic at evening crowd-pullers, such as concerts and basketball games.

Most of the student patrolmen cover their beat on foot, in pairs, but those patrolling the SIU Camp area on Little Grassy Lake are mounted on horseback.

One patrolmen is always on duty from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m. to provide information and direct cars in the Visitors' Parking Area next to the University president's office. An information booth, designed like a sentry box, is a storehouse for printed literature visitors may require and serves the patrolman as protection against the elements.

The reasons for forming the Patrol last September were threefold: to supplment SIU's campus police, to serve visitors and the nearly 8,000 students on this campus and to provide another opportunity for student employment.

The Patrol is, largely, run by students with Malcolm Winkler a junior liberal arts and sciences student as its head.

It is divided into three sections: traffic, headed by Jack Philbrick, a freshman arts and sciences student; a woods patrol, with Robert Larner, senior, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, as its chief, and a lake patrol under Herb Naugle, another senior liberal arts student.

The traffic crew delves into such things as parking, directing traffic at all University functions, checking bicycles to make sure their riders keep to the paved paths provided for them, and passing along to the campus police reports on repeating violators of traffic rules and regulations.

The Thompson Woods patrol walks the paths of a wooded area kept in its natural state in the heart of the campus. The purpose of this, says Leffler, is to offer protection for students walking the paths at night.

A patrol also is maintained around the Campus Lake, also in the heart of SIU's booming Carbondale campus. Among their duties is to see to it that groups properly clean up and take care of the picnic and recreation areas they have used.

A mounter security force—uniformed Saluki patrolmen on horseback—polices the Little Grassy Lake area.

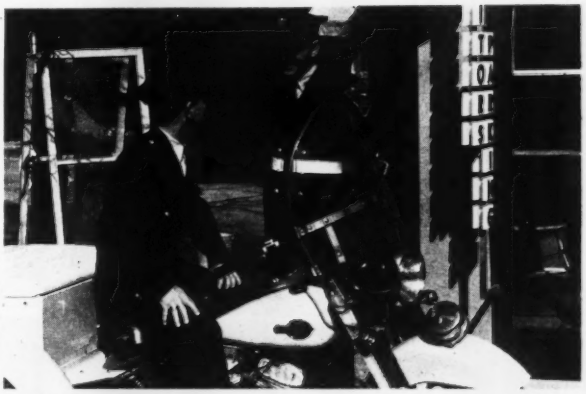
At times, the Patrol is called upon for special jobs, such as serving as security guards around displays at the coming Family Outdoor Living Show, or serving as chauffeurs for important campus visitors.

"One thing we get a lot of good comments on," says Leffler, "is the tremendous amount of courtesy these students show other students, staff and faculty, and visitors."

To become efficient, and to insure increasing efficiency, the student patrolmen must attend a once-a-week training school. The patrolmen are paid student wages for this, as they are for all their duties.

In the school, Leffler brings in various experts. For example, an attorney for SIU's legal department informs the students of laws of arrest and the Illinois criminal code. Another expert tells them about directing traffic. Another talks on some special area of police work.

The Patrol also reports doors open, lights out, and keeps check on a host of "little things" necessary to the proper maintenance and protection of a major university. ★★★



Saluki patrolman stationed outside President's Office discusses traffic situation with regular campus policeman.

Because of maize of paved paths (for pedestrians and bicycles) through Thompson Woods to various campus buildings, part of woods patrol duties is to give directions to students.

Constant discussions between the patrol's student leaders, Leffler, (right) and other superiors from the security office bring up problems, gain solutions.

I A A I
International Association of Arson Investigators

Clues and Leads in Arson Investigation

By Captain L. L. Priar

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Captain Priar has been a member of the Pennsylvania State Police for the past twenty-eight years and assumed the duties of Fire Marshal in April of 1957. He is Past-President and current Chairman of the Legislative Committee of the International Association of Arson Investigators, and a Member of the Committee on Arson of the National Fire Protection Association. He is a Member of the Advisory Board of the National Police Officers Association of America and an Officer in the U. S. Naval Intelligence Reserve, Fourth Naval District, Philadelphia. Captain Priar's services are in demand as a lecturer in the field of Arson Investigation and he has served in this capacity at various Arson Seminars in the United States and Canada.*

WE read and hear that arson is the most difficult of all crimes to investigate or at least to reach a satisfactory conclusion in Court. Is that opinion correct, or are we who are engaged in the suppression of arson responsible for this trend of thought?

The statement that arson in the majority of cases is committed in secrecy and by most unusual personalities is correct. So what? Regardless of the offense, the burglar, the bank embezzler, the counterfeiter, the confidence man, and the habitual thief all work secretly and many times individually. The rapist and the sodomist certainly don't generaly pick the open campus or the main street at noon hour to commit their acts against society and most undoubtedly they are queer and secretive.

We proudly say, with our heads held high, that arson is not only a crime against property, but against the person. In the same thought we find many of our major crimes committed not only against the person, but against the State and Government as well.

Please do not misunderstand me, I don't for a moment mean to infer that in investigating the circumstances surrounding a fire, that we do not encounter many obstacles, such as, eliminating the accidental causes, the fact that in many instances the evidence is destroyed by the fire itself, or that the corpus delicti is immediately present, as is found in the majority of other crimes, but what I am endeavoring to put across, more especially to the so called recruits in this particular specialized field, is the fact that there is absolutely no difference between an arson investigation than any major crime, they all involve, SOUND JUDGMENT — COMMON SENSE — HONESTY — FAIRNESS — AND HARD WORK, with a little luck thrown in. In addition however, you will be required to work much harder, dig a little deeper, and plug a little longer than may be generally necessary in developing other clues and leads.

One thing is certain, such a description refutes the old theory, that a successful investigation involves three principles, made up of 80% bull, 10% luck and 10% ability.

There are two types of investigators; the first being the loyal, honorable, and worthy person who is imbued with a true police spirit to render public service; whose desire is to master all requirements of his profession and keep abreast of modern investigative methods, thereby being a credit to his community and department. The second type is the one who wears a uniform or dons his civilian clothes, draws a pay check and considers his work as a job, who knows all there is to know without resorting to study or "book learning," who bases his reputation on the arrest of suspects in a few "cut-and-dried" cases that any high school boy could have handled, who follows the easy middle of the road course when the going is rough, who is full of complaints and excuses, who is awfully tough with the incidental and unintentional summary offender, and who lacks investigative skill and intelligence in a real criminal case.

There can be no magic touch in grasping instructions. It is mainly up to each individual to properly apply himself. Important investigative instructions cannot be imparted in a few short lessons, nor in a few months, or even in three or four years. There must be a constant application and study.

I am not at all unmindful that with training must go common sense. Very often a handful of common sense is worth a bushel of training, but still training is very important. When training applied with common sense, develops knowledge, then we have something of paramount value. Firemen should be aware that they as detectors are in the position to either make or break a case. Furthermore, if the crime of arson is to be curtailed, it is a necessity that the firemen thoroughly understand how their findings will be handled in the investigation, identification and prosecution phases of the case.

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The arson investigative profession is simply a skilled business wherein the successful investigator is the man who understands the laws governing scientific detection and applies them carefully to each case.

The detection is a process of elimination on one hand and of accumulated possibilities on the other. Through the examination of both physical and moral evidences the investigator is furnished information referred to as clues.

An investigation of any kind involves two problems: (1) THE KNOWN, and (2) THE UNKNOWN. The investigator's problem involves developing the "KNOWN" into evidence and finding the "UNKNOWN" and developing it into evidence. The best method is to learn the UNKNOWN by studying the KNOWN. As soon as correct information about the "UNKNOWN" is established, it becomes the KNOWN. This method involves continual investigation until all the information is correlated with the original incident.

In other words, immediately following a fire, certain known facts and many unknown facts are present. The burned building, property damage, personal injury, time element, and the location are the known facts. The UNKNOWN factors are the cause of the fire, the identity of the perpetrator, methods deployed and human responsibility.

Since all forms of matter found on the earth may be involved as evidence, again we stress the point that it is impossible to advise the correct method of gathering and separating the KNOWN from the UNKNOWN.

One thing is certain, however, is that an aimless search for evidence should not be permitted. Plans should be made and carried out to prevent this. Aimless searching and wandering about will destroy evidence and serves no purpose. Wandering from corner to corner, picking up things and laying them down, rifling and throwing things about is all in vain. Too often this type of investigator is only trying to give the spectators an appearance of efficiency to cover up bewilderment and stupidity.

At the fire scene every step and every movement should have a purpose. Nothing is to be touched or handled that can be studied with the eye and only absolute necessary movements should be permitted. At the completion of the search, the investigator must combine the evidence found at the scene with the evidence obtained from the speaking witnesses to arrive at the solution of the problem or at least separate the known from the unknown.

The case that is founded on one fact is a positive or direct case. In other words, this evidence is given by eye witnesses who saw one thing of such enormity that the whole question of guilt or innocence rests on this one thing alone.

The investigator may be inclined to think that this positive evidence is a guarantee of a conviction and he may abandon the investigation. He has a weak case as there is only one thing to disprove by the defense. Disproving this one fact will generally throw the case out of court, for the case rests on the truth or falsity of a single piece of evidence. The investigator should attempt to bolster up the positive evidence by other facts to show that the main fact is true.

The best case is that in which there is positive evidence supported by bits of circumstantial evidence. The objective is to see that there is circumstantial evidence which directly supports the positive evidence. The defense then has many things to explain in this type of case, and the accused may cop a plea.

A circumstantial evidence case is made up of scattered bits of evidence. The investigator must assemble these scattered bits into one complete ring surrounding the accused. This is rather difficult, since the defense has to destroy only one or two bits of evidence to break the effectiveness of the chain. On the other hand, if the circumstantial chain is more than a single one, built properly and truthfully, the defense has too many things to disprove.

Before transgressing further, we at this particular point should understand that although we have been discussing the significance of investigation, technically speaking there is little difference between clues and leads, for as a rumor develops into a lead, both being negative or unknown factors, we are touching upon the known or positive piece of evidence; thus the three become practically synonymous.

The original clue was a thread, the end of which was given a person in a maze or passage to serve as a guide. Clues in the investigative profession are not always threads, but might be termed signs pointing in the right direction, or a "fact" or "principal" that serves as a guide or suggests a line of inquiry.

The discovery and interpretation of clues can thus be said to fall into two categories and two periods. Formerly, the clue meant information given by an accused person or witness, and its value depended upon the reliability of the statement made. Today such information would hardly be described as a clue at all.

The first period might be described as pure legal. The second, that of today is the legal and the scientific.

It is possible for any person, even the most experienced investigator, to set down a list of clues, leads and rumors or regulations governing the procedure to be followed in the investigation of each individual arson

November Institute

November 8-12, 1960. The Sixth Annual Southwestern Arson Investigation Institute will be held at the University of Oklahoma. For details communicate with Mr. James Robinson, Legal Consultant, Southwest Center for Law Enforcement, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

case or for that matter any other type criminal case. What might apply in one investigation would be entirely inadequate in another.

One might say that to develop for prosecution, the six requisites to be determined in an investigation are brought to light, or vice-versa, namely; WHO — WHAT — WHERE — WHY — HOW AND WHEN. They consist of such things as the fire itself, the methods of setting the fire, obtaining materials with which to set the fire, the actual igniting, the amount of destruction caused by the fire, lives lost or persons injured, and the amount of insurance; the methods used in preparation, evidence of actually setting the fire and the escape or attempts to hide the commission of the act; the circumstances relative to securing additional insurance or having excessive insurance; the act of removing furniture or other things to a place of safety prior to the fire; the owner, in absenting himself from the building or from the town during the time fire occurred. These are just some facts which come into existence by the process of elimination, beginning many times with rumors, which thoroughly followed up developed into leads and finally into a positive state.

In other words, if you have been fortunate enough to secure an honest substantiated answer to the following questions, the investigation can be considered exceptionally well covered. In fact, one would be safe in saying that you are lucky to find the complete answer, particularly in an arson investigation.

Who Questions

Who discovered the crime?
Who reported the crime (full name & address)?
Who saw or heard anything relative to the case?
Who had a motive for committing this crime?
Who committed the crime?
Who helped the perpetrator?
With whom did the suspect associate?
With whom are the witnesses associated?
Who would profit from the crime?

What Questions

What happened?
What crime was committed?
What are the elements of the crime?
What were the actions of the suspect?
What do the witnesses know about the case?
What evidence was obtained?
What was done with the evidence?
What tools were employed?
What weapons were utilized?
What knowledge, skill, or strength was necessary to commit the crime?
What means of transportation was used in the commission of the crime?
What was the motive?
What was the modus operandi?
What was the amount of insurance?
What, if anything was removed from building prior to the fire?
What was the direction and spread of fire travel?
What was the weather?

Where Questions

Where was the crime discovered?
Where was the crime committed?
Where were the suspects seen?
Where were the witnesses during the crime?
Where was the victim found?
Where were the tools and weapons obtained?
Where did the suspect live?
Where did the victim live?
Where did the suspect spend his leisure time?
Where is the suspect now?
Where is the suspect likely to go?
Where was the suspect apprehended?

When Questions

When was the crime committed?
When was the crime discovered?
When was notification received?
When did the firemen arrive?
When did the police arrive at the scene?
When was the victim last seen?
When was the suspect apprehended?

How Questions

How was the crime committed?
How did the suspect get to the scene?
How did the suspect get away?
How did the suspect get the information necessary to enable him to commit the crime?
How was the crime discovered?
How did the suspect secure the tools and weapons?
How were the tools and weapons utilized?
How much damage was done?
How much property was stolen?
How much skill, knowledge, and strength was necessary to commit the crime?

Why Questions

Why was the crime committed?
Why were the particular tools utilized?
Why was the particular method employed?
Why are the witnesses reluctant to talk?
Why was the crime reported?

The following are just a few suggestions that could develop into clues which might be uncovered by the firemen. How entry to the property was first made and if the doors and windows were open or shut, locked or unlocked. The type and color of smoke and the rapidity of the spread of fire may be a lead in determining if an accelerant has been used. He might question neighbors concerning:

George H. Parker Retires

Effective July 1, George H. Parker retired as Manager of the Kentucky Inspection Bureau. He is succeeded by John L. Thompson.

Mr. Parker served the insurance companies continuously for fifty-six years, the last forty-four as Manager of the Kentucky Inspection Bureau.

Mr. Parker served as the first president of the International Association of Arson Investigators, Inc. in 1949-50. He has been in attendance at all the IAAI meetings, and served as IAAI Historian for several years. Presently he is IAAI Corporation Process Agent and an ardent supporter of the organization.

Mr. Parker plans to continue active participation in the Arson Seminar at Purdue and in fire prevention activities throughout Kentucky.

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Fyr-Fyter

1. Where the fire originated?
2. Who discovered the fire?
3. Who turned or called in the alarm?
4. The nature of fire when first observed.
5. Evidence of explosions.
6. Persons seen around or leaving the premises.
7. Automobiles seen on or leaving the premises.
8. Recent visitors to the premises.
9. Removal of anything from the premises, including pets.
10. Recent visits of occupants to other places.
11. Similarity in origin and time with other recent fires.

Clues are not always obvious—sometimes it is only by careful search that they can be uncovered. Detective stories—television and radio have nearly always developed clues in the form of tracks, footprints, a knife, a button, piece of cloth, metal container, flammable liquid, or any other physical thing, but in real investigative work the clue is often not physical but circumstantial. For instance:

"A taxi driver was asked to drive to a lonely, little-used and not well known road. He was told that he was to go to a house on that road and the name of the owner was given. At a very lonely place on the road the driver was told to stop on account of a bad piece of road just ahead. Upon doing so he was struck on the head and rendered unconscious by the passenger, who robbed him and left him for dead. The passenger fled to another state. In this case the clue was the fact that the thug was familiar with the road. Evidenced by the fact that the only person having lived on the road was the one the thug had asked for."

Occasionally the time element is a clue and it is always a very important element in the solution of a case.

The nature of the work of the criminal is sometimes a clue. The skillful manner in which a panel had been removed from the door indicated a carpenter could be involved. Chisel marks were traced in such a door to a chisel in the possession of a certain carpenter.

A criminal took such good care to purchase dynamite which had no label with which to load a bomb to be used for the purpose of intimidation that it led to his detection, because there was only one dealer that carried this particular kind of unlabeled dynamite.

From the stomach of a burned nude body it was learned that the victim had probably dined at a near-by hotel. The contents of the stomach were familiar to the bill of fare. The stage of digestion told the length of time death had occurred after eating. The body was identified by the hotel waiter. The companion of the victim was found and proved to be the murderer and arsonist.

Suppose, for example, the interior of a store building

is partially gutted out by fire, the owner is of questionable reputation and has had a previous suspicious fire; first of all the investigator wants to know how admission was obtained to the property and how exit was made. If the doors and windows are secured and locked with the owner having the only set of keys in his possession that in itself is a clue, suggesting that possibly the investigator is confronted with an inside job. When it is known that a particular kind of flammable liquid has been used, the investigator must attempt to ascertain who made the purchase or who was known to possess it. The liquid, for example, is an internal clue, but the actual purchase is an external one.

For instance there was the grocer who said an intruder must have entered the store by a side window and set fire to it. Just as he related; there was the side window, pried open from the outside. But the investigator being on the alert noticed that dust on the window still was undisturbed. (Is that positive evidence, or is it a clue?) Beyond any doubt we can classify the officer's findings as that of a clue. By that particular clue alone, both the officer and grocer realized that the finger was pointing towards an inside job, discounting all theory of burglary followed by a set fire. Now when the grocer confessed, and the confession was reduced to writing, incorporating therein, his plan to throw suspicion on a burglar, such facts immediately became positive evidence and a substantiating factor which could be used in either direct or rebuttal testimony.

A youth in being questioned concerning a barn fire displayed symptoms of nervousness, claiming that the fire was caused by carelessness on his part. Stating he was carrying a lighted candle in the hog pen and accidentally ignited some cobwebs which suddenly burst into flames, then spread upward to the roof. (DO WE HAVE A LEAD OR A CLUE?)

The nervousness of the youth cannot in one sense be considered a lead as the majority of persons exhibit signs of uneasiness when being questioned, this depends entirely on the physical makeup of the individual, however, on the other hand, the nervousness may be a sign pointing in the right direction. This must be determined by the investigator, which usually develops by experience through judgment of human nature. One thing is certain; we have a good lead. Cobwebs don't ignite, they simply dissolve or vanish under heat, and since the fire could not have started accidentally and in the manner related to the investigator, the lead has developed into a possible suspect. From that point on, the case largely depends upon the ingenuity of the investigator and the proper handling of the suspect in developing just how the fire was intentionally set.

We read comments both pro and con relative to the criminal having more chance of escape than he had twenty years ago. That, the modern criminal is proving or will prove one too many for the Police. Regardless of what your personal opinion might be, one thing is certain, the arsonist is not advancing beyond or on equal par with the arson investigator providing, however, we are referring to those municipalities, provinces and states who are not sold on the idea that 95% of all arson cases are solved by the investigator alone, through information received from informants or other witnesses, but by coordination and cooperation with the identification and crime detection laboratories. The investigator is just as good as the information he received, since it is his responsibility and his alone to discriminate between the negative and positive facts. We might say in the same respect that if the investigator lacks the fundamental knowledge of the methods employed by the Laboratory Technician and carelessly handles the positive evidence to be analyzed which we might refer to as the known factor, which in many instances is brought to light while searching for a lead, he is defeating himself.

In summarizing kindly remember that Clues, Leads and Rumors are closely associated. They are in some degree inter-related and tend to move together, or in other words the latter two (Leads and Rumors) when run out, or developed, as the case may be, become either negative or positive, and if the latter, then becomes a clue which in turn may present a connecting link. It is therefore important to think of them in that respect because each must be developed to some finality, even though the result may remain negative. That follow-through is important even though it may not establish anything. On the other hand, to have not followed through, could be disastrous because the result could easily have become positive.

The following check list contains essential information that should not be overlooked in the investigation of arson. Remember all fires are considered accidental until proven otherwise.

(A) Incident. The fact that a burning did occur must be established.

The following information is necessary:

(1) The date and time of the burning.

(2) The address or location where the burning occurred (official designation).

(3) An accurate description of the building structure, or premises, including:

(a) The kind of material of which constructed.

(b) The age, or approximate age.

(c) The dimensions or approximate dimensions.

(4) The fire station that received the alarm.

(5) The time that the fire station received the alarm.

(6) The fire apparatus, if any, that attended the fire, and the time that it was officially in operation.

(7) The time that the fire apparatus was withdrawn from the burning, or the time that the fire department declared the burning extinguished.

(8) The official designation of the incident by fire

department records.

(B) Value. The fact that the dwelling or structure was of a given value and belonged to a certain person must be established. The following information is necessary:

(1) The approximate value of the property.

(2) The insurance coverage on the property. Don't report "over insurance" unless you are able to qualify yourself as an expert in a Court of Law.

(3) The inventory of stock, fixtures, equipment, and other items of value within the premises, and the damage as a result of the fire.

(4) The name of the occupant at the time of the fire; if the dwelling was vacant, the length of time that the premises had remained unoccupied.

(5) The name of the owner of the property, including all aliases.

(6) The name of the insured, whether owner or tenant.

(C) Factual evidence. The basic facts necessary to the commission of the crime must be established. The following information is necessary:

(1) The name of the person who discovered the fire, and his observations concerning:

(a) The building or room that was the first to burn.

(b) The exact origin of the fire.

(2) The time that the fire was discovered.

(3) The name of the person who turned in the alarm.

(4) The means by which the fire was reported.

(5) How the burning occurred, if known.

(6) Significant noises that were noticed before or during the burning.

(7) The direction in which the burning spread.

(8) The name of the person who was in the building at the time of the burning or who was in the building last.

(9) The area that suffered the greatest damage.

(10) The physical evidence discovered.

(11) If a death occurred, all the important data and facts revealed by the autopsy.

(12) Photographs and impressions of evidence of forced entry at any of the doors, windows, hatches, skylights, or other points of entry.

(13) The conditions and location of fire-fighting equipment, such as hoses, extinguishers (full or empty), damaged alarm mechanisms, and sprinkler system.

(14) Evidence of the careless storing or placing of such flammable materials as gasoline, paint, oils, chemicals, lighter fluid, and cleaning fluid.

(15) The location and condition of all electric lights, drops, extensions, appliances, and fuses.

(16) The condition of electric wiring, including exposed wiring; evidence of recent repairs, inside and outside; evidence of splices, connections, or alterations, and when, if known, such alterations were made and by whom; load carried by the wires; prescribed load of the fuses through which the lines were fed; testimony as to whether or not heat was ever noticed in the wires or terminals before the fire.

(17) The number and type of machines, if any, in the room or building; when they were last used; the amount of power they consumed; and when they were last tested and serviced.

(18) The number of electric motors in the room or building; how they were safeguarded against dust; their horsepower, voltage, and purpose; whether they were the "open" or "sealed" type; the length of time they were generally in operation; and their defects, if any.

(19) The condition of gas pipes, bottled gas pipes, steam pipes, air pipes, and water pipes.

(20) The number and type of stoves within the room or building; whether fires were in the stoves; the kinds of fuel that were used; the locations of the sources of fuel in relation to the stoves; whether the stoves were well insulated; when the ashes were last removed; where removed ashes were placed; when the stoves were last cleaned or serviced; and whether they had pilot lights or similar continually burning flames.

(21) Glass objects that may have accidentally caused the fire by concentrating the rays of the sun.

(22) The facts pertaining to the devices that may have been found among the debris.

(23) The methods used to extinguish the burning; e.g., water, foam, and carbon dioxide. (Such data are sent to the criminal investigation laboratory when evidence is forwarded for identification.)

(D) Circumstantial evidence. In the prosecution of arson, although circumstantial evidence may convict, it must be established that a suspect was directly or indirectly connected with the crime. Many of the factors listed under (C) above may also be considered under this heading; conversely, several of the items listed under

Scout Jamboree

Colorado Gov. Stephen L. R. McNichols has commended the hundreds of governmental officials of the 50 states for their cooperation in aiding 56,078 Scouts and leaders get to and from the National Jubilee Jamboree of the Boy Scouts of America.

State Police, county and municipal governmental officials have assisted by providing equipment, caravan leadership and in many other ways.

"Realizing the importance of this gathering of youth, Colorado has provided 200 state police cars and hundreds of officers to assist the traffic movement of thousands of visitors to the Jamboree here in the Shadow of Pike's Peak."

The Governor said he knows that many governmental officials are active in the Boy Scout movement and understand the need for public support of a character building organization which contributes so much in good citizenship.

Governor McNichols was a brief speaker at the opening night pageant.

this heading may subsequently be developed into factual points. The following circumstantial evidence may connect a suspect with arson:

(1) Hearsay, corroborated by evidence, and coupled with the investigator's appraisal at the scene.

(2) The testimony of the first person on the premises after the fire was discovered:

(a) His observations.

(b) His opinion as to the origin of the fire.

(3) The circumstances under which the fire was first discovered.

(4) The testimony of personnel of the fire department who entered the building.

(5) The time interval between the discovery of the fire and the report to the fire department.

(6) The type of burning; e.g., flash, fire, explosion, smoldering fire, or rapidly spreading fire; the approximate intensity of the burning; and whether there were separate fires.

(7) The presence, color, and odor of smoke during the fire.

(8) The color, height, and intensity of the flames.

(9) Alterations or changes made in the building while it was occupied by the latest tenant, such as the addition of partitions, electric wiring, or stoves.

(10) Evidence of possible devices or means by which the burning was started; candle, match, timing device, or flammable material.

(11) Evidence of the presence of a suspicious person, particularly a loiterer, in the immediate area of the burning during the twenty-four-hour period preceding the fire.

(12) Evidence that any articles were removed from the premises or were recently repaired, altered, or adjusted in any way.

(13) Blistered paint, charred wood, melted metal, glass, or other material that may be found at the suspected or known point of origin.

(14) Evidence that a liquid chemical, such as alcohol or turpentine, was used to start the burning; or evidence found in the crevices of a table, box, or floor that a candle or similar item may have been used.

(15) Records, financial or otherwise, or items or materials that the arsonist might have wished to destroy.

(16) Information relative to the insurance coverage of the building, structure, premises, or property, or of items and articles of particular value; data as to mortgages liens, loans, and the financial status of the suspect; and any action, pending or past, against the suspect or against any member of his family.

(17) Information from inspections of the premises which may have been made prior to the fire. (Such data may be obtained from city or local fire departments, insurance carriers, city or local construction permits and accompanying inspections, and from insurance underwriters groups.)

(18) The direction of any air current within the building during the burning, as deduced from partially burned wall paper, depth of charring, or soot deposits.

(19) The availability of air within the building during the fire, as revealed by the heaviest concentrations of smoke and soot.

(20) Evidence that the heat created by the inspection igniting agent was sufficient to kindle the material.

(21) The identification of the material burned; e.g., oils or chemicals. The laboratory examination of samples of soot may supply this information.

(22) The presence among the debris of peculiarly colored ashes and clinkers, or of traces of paraffin, saturated rags, waste, excelsior, or other fire spreaders.

(23) Evidence indicating who was responsible for the security of the building, who possessed the keys to the building, and who could have had additional keys made.

(24) Information as to whether windows or doors were normally closed and locked; whether some windows were of necessity left unlocked although they were closed; or whether some, or all, of the windows were normally left open.

(25) Weather data, such as the atmospheric temperature and the direction of the wind at the time of the burning, and information concerning any electrical storm that may have occurred at that time.

(26) Evidence that a suspect is a known arsonist and that the modus operandi employed in the case under investigation is similar to that employed by the suspect in the past.

(27) Evidence that the fire resulted from spontaneous combustion.

(28) Additional circumstances that may either tend to prove or disprove the burning as the work of an arsonist.

(29) Scaled photographs or sketches of the scene, interior and exterior, during the burning and after the burning has been extinguished, supplemented with notes and evidence.

(E) Threats. Any pertinent statements, utterances, or declarations of a threatening nature made by the suspect or by others concerning the building, the owner, or the tenant who occupied the property should be considered by the investigator.

(F) Motive. A motive for setting a fire may be established by determining the following:

(1) That a person or a group of persons would benefit from the burning.

(2) That another crime, such as murder, theft, larceny, or unlawful disposition of funds or property, had been committed on the premises previous to the fire, and that the burned building contained evidence of the crime.

(3) That there were money, stock or equipment shortages.

(4) That worthless items had been substituted for valuable items alleged to have been consumed in the fire.

(Continued on page 64)

A Matter of Professional Ethics

By Allen P. Bristow

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author's law enforcement experience includes service with the Corps of Military Police, the San Fernando Police Department and the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, where he held the rank of Sergeant. He holds the Associate of Arts degree in Police Science, B. A. degree in Sociology and M. S. degree in Public Administration with Law Enforcement as the area of concentration. He is currently completing the requirements for the Doctor of Public Administration degree at the University of Southern California. The author was recently appointed to the position as Assistant Professor on the faculty of the Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College.*

AS the police service emerges from its vocational era and approaches the status of a profession, increasing attention is being paid to codes of conduct and ethics by police administrators. The great majority of law enforcement agencies throughout the United States have adopted a uniform "Code of Ethics" and it is found hanging on the walls of various police stations or reproduced in departmental manuals and orders.

There would seem to be a great divergence in the interpretation of this Code of Ethics on the part of many police administrators. This article is written in an attempt to point up some of the problem areas or inconsistencies and propose a solution.

EXAMPLES OF ETHICAL PROBLEMS

Free Meals. The acceptance of gratuities by the police appears to be most prevalent where meals are concerned. The author has observed this in varying degrees which range from a small discount for officers on duty to free meals for the officer and his family off duty. The interpretation of the gratuities section of the Code of Ethics by police administrators shows an equally great variation. One department may forbid its officers to accept a free cup of coffee, while a neighboring police agency requires its watch commanders to establish a meal schedule for its officers which will insure every patrol car an opportunity to eat at a free restaurant.

What is the correct interpretation of gratuities? Is it unethical for an officer to accept a free cup of coffee? The author has served in some areas where an attempt to pay for a cup of coffee would have been an insult to the cafe owner and a breach of good public relations.

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One acquaintance who possesses high ethical standards, feels that accepting a free cup of coffee is in no way a breach of the Code of Ethics *if the officer did not select the cafe because he knew the coffee would be free.* Is this a good interpretation of the gratuities section? Should it apply equally to free meals?

Benevolent Associations. Many law enforcement agencies have associations organized to further the welfare of members. The ventures entered into by these organizations are many: life insurance, health, insurance, loan funds, group purchasing, and legislative lobbying. No one can question the beneficial accomplishments of these organizations but their methods of raising funds may occasionally be at variance with what many consider ethical.

The main source of income for these organizations is membership dues. Dues alone often fail to adequately finance the ventures of the organizations and so they branch out into the promotion of annual dances, raffles, rodeos, talent shows and other events. Profit from these events is realized through the sale of tickets, and it is at this point that the promotion becomes questionable in so far as ethics are concerned.

Tickets are often sold by officers in uniform. Such sales are tantamount to coercion. Traffic officers approach violators with a book of tickets in their cap band or clipped to their uniform shirt. Merchants are pledged to buy a "book" of tickets. Are such sales in line with our professional ethics?

Another device that is utilized to sell tickets is the windshield sticker. Some organizations issue a badge shaped decal emblem to the purchaser of each ticket. The purchaser then places this emblem on his automobile windshield. Whether or not such an emblem actually has any effect on an officer about to issue the motorist a citation is not material, *the motorist thinks it does.* When the motorist places the sticker on the windshield he believes he has "bought a cop." Do such emblems conflict with the gratuities clause in our Code of Ethics?

Discount Shopping. Merchants often grant discounts to local police officers which range from 10% to 50%. These discounts are occasionally volunteered by the merchant out of empathy, due to the low salary of police officers, but in most cases the merchant actually feels that he will suffer the displeasure of the officer if he does not offer a discount.

The attitude on the part of police administrators

toward discount shopping ranges widely. In some departments officers are not permitted to shop on duty and are forbidden to shop in uniform at any time. Other departments permit the officer to do all his family and personal shopping on duty, in uniform, and then to transfer the goods from the patrol car to his own car. Should police officers be permitted to enter a store on duty or in uniform, except on official business?

While the most common form of discount shopping is accomplished by shopping in uniform, another device should be mentioned. Frequently the benevolent association will make arrangements with a businessman regarding a blanket discount for the entire department. When this is solicited by the businessman, to increase his volume of sales, very little ethical compromise exists. Is it in accord with good ethical standards, however, for the association to solicit such discounts?

Other Problems. I have chosen to elaborate on only a few of the problem areas which seem important in the geographical area with which I am most familiar. In other areas the problems mentioned may be considered minor by police administrators who are concerned with a multitude of ethical considerations peculiar to their own jurisdiction such as: political activity, conflicting outside employment, nepotism, and racial prejudice, to name a few.

SOLUTIONS

If the police service were a true profession, all or most of its members would belong to an organization which would ". . . exercise an influence on the maintenance of professional standards. . . ." A committee of this organization could then interpret for the members the various ethical problems which occur, and recommend a course of conduct. Members who fail to conform would be removed from the organization. This procedure is basic to Medical Associations and Bar Associations.

Unfortunately such a situation does not exist. The only organization which approaches the professional requirements of the police service is the International Association of Chiefs of Police. The I.A.C.P. is restricted to Police Administrators, however, and fails to include the practitioners and educators in the field as active members. This restriction limits the I.A.C.P. in becoming the sustaining organization for the future police profession. An examination of the American Medical Association and various Bar Associations will reveal that membership includes practitioners as well as educators who exert a strong influence within these professions.

We must assume that at some future date a professional police association will be formed which will include practitioners, and educators in the field, and which will perform the functions required by a true profession. At such a time employment will be somewhat dependent on association membership and members will be required to adhere to the ethical standards of the association in order to maintain employment.

But what of today? What can we do *now* to insure uniform ethical conduct on the part of law enforcement officers? One solution seems to be appropriate for our present situation.

The I.A.C.P. Committee on Standards and Ethics could be revitalized and reorganized to function as a sounding board for ethical conduct. Its membership could be greatly increased to include an equal number of administrators and educators in the field of law enforcement. The Committee could then be divided into geographical sub-committees which would stimulate more frequent meetings. Each sub-committee would evaluate local problems in police ethics and the resulting interpretations could be synthesized at an annual meeting.

After the Committee adopts an interpretation of ethical behavior, with regard to gratuities for instance, its recommendations could be published in the Police Chief. Copies could also be sent to *all* other professional publications and departmental organs, with a request to reprint the material. Every method of disseminating the material could be exhausted.

The failure to adhere to the decision of the Committee on the part of administrators or individual officers would, of course, be unenforceable. It has long been felt, however, that greater cooperation occurs when it is sought voluntarily than when it is sought under the shadow of enforcement.

The question of the proposed composition of the Committee may cause concern on the part of some members of the I.A.C.P. Admittedly, Professors of Police Science, Criminology, etc., are permitted only associate membership in the organization and do not serve to a great extent on regular committees. My suggestion on the composition of the Committee on Ethics and Standards does not in any way reflect the opinion that regular police administrators alone lack the ability to make ethical decisions of quality. Rather it reflects the opinion that educators in the field are in a position to temper the practical thinking of police administrators with theory and foresight, thus producing decisions which will become stepping stones on the pathway to professionalization.

*Essentials of a Profession, as presented by the IACP committee on Professions, 1938-39. ★★★

Capital punishment is when the government taxes you to get capital in order to go into business in competition with you, and then taxes the profits on your business in order to pay its losses.

———————

Correcting faults is like tying a necktie; we can do it easier on ourselves than on others.

Encouraging Compliance with Policies

By G. Douglas Gourley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is Head of the Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College. He obtained the A. B. degree with a major in Law from the University of Southern California in 1935. Subsequently, he received the Master of Science degree in Public Administration in 1951 at this institution and currently has completed all the course work for the degree of Doctor of Public Administration.*

After serving two years as a social worker, Professor Gourley joined the Los Angeles Police Department in January 1937 and was with that Department continuously except for three and one-half years in the U. S. Navy during World War II. He has held all ranks up to and including the rank of Inspector and has served in all phases of police activity; Patrolman four years; Sergeant four years; Lieutenant four years; Captain five years; and Inspector two years. For ten years he served as an Instructor in Police Science and Administration at the Civic Center Division of the School of Public Administration, U.S.C., and for one year was Commander of the Los Angeles Police Training Academy. He is the author of PUBLIC RELATIONS AND THE POLICE, Charles C Thomas, 1953, 160 pp; A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CRIMINAL PROCEDURE (Robert Walter, co-author), Civic Center Division, U.S.C., Los Angeles, and has been a frequent contributor to the professional journals.

This is the first in a series of two articles on the important subject of developing compliance with policies in a police organization.

INTRODUCTION

THE proper formulation, publication and implementation of policies are of great importance to successful achievement of the objectives of any police agency. These matters should, therefore, be of vital concern to police executives and students of police administration.

In this article no effort will be made to define policy or to discuss the many factors which influence its formation. Neither will it be indicated how policies can be most adequately made known to rank and file policemen. Available space will be used to point out ways in which policy may be implemented—that is carried out and made effective. The ways are many, varied and interrelated. For the sake of this presentation I have grouped them under the headings of organization, deployment of manpower, budgeting, training, discipline, supervision, communication, and the chief.

ORGANIZATION

Regardless of how policies are formed and how adequately statements of these policies are broadcast throughout the police department, they will remain ineffective until they are carried out by a number of people located in various organization units, according to the nature, time and place of their duty. The first step then, toward achieving the objectives of a police department and insuring compliance with its policies is the establishment of an effective and appropriate organization.

As an example let us assume that a policy of strict enforcement of laws dealing with commercialized vice has been established. Such a policy would certainly be ineffective if the departmental organization made no provision for the assignment of officers charged with this specific responsibility. Furthermore, even though the organization provided for officers to be assigned to these duties, results would be uncertain unless the vice officers were responsible directly to the Chief. If too far removed from his direct control, modifications of and exceptions to his vice policy would be more likely to occur. It is true that the longer the chain of command between the Chief and his policemen the more likely any policy is to be modified, but this is especially true in connection with the vice policy discussed, because of the great pressures and temptations which often arise in the enforcement of vice regulations.

The police force must be organized in such a way as to assure the most effective implementation or carrying out of policies. In order that this may be done it is essential that all tasks be specifically assigned and that each officer know his particular duties and responsibilities. The assignment of similar or related tasks to one man or group of men is usually desirable and normally tends to bring about the most complete compliance with established policies.

For instance, a departmental policy requiring officers to issue warning tags for a certain length of time before issuing citations for overtime parking in newly posted or previously non-enforced time limit parking zones would probably be most effective in a department where all time-limit parking regulations were enforced by officers assigned to one specific unit. This would be so because of the many problems of coordination, supervision, communication, attitudes and interest which will be discussed later on. For similar reasons, compliance with a policy requiring a personal follow-up on every crime report taken would be most effectively assured in an organization where detectives or other specialists were assigned this duty.

I hasten at this point, however, to emphasize that specialization for the sake of policy implementation, or for any other reason for that matter, can be and

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very often is overdone. This is especially true in small departments which have attempted to copy the organizational structure of a larger neighboring department. A recent study in a small Southern California city revealed that on the night watch three radio cars, one traffic accident investigation car, and one juvenile car were customarily assigned. The traffic car was assigned nothing but traffic accidents and the juvenile car handled nothing but juvenile matters. Both of these cars were idle much of the time whereas the three radio cars were so busy answering calls that they had no time for patrol duties and often went for an eight-hour shift without having an opportunity to eat.

Under the circumstances the adequacy of this organizational structure is open to serious question.

DEPLOYMENT OF MANPOWER

Closely related to organizational structure in implementing policy is the deployment of manpower. Let us go back to the policy example requiring a personal follow-up on every crime report taken. Unless sufficient officers are assigned to investigative duties the case load of the officers who are assigned soon reaches such proportions that it becomes a physical impossibility to make personal contacts on all assigned cases and so other expedients are devised. The expressed policy then becomes something substantially less in operation.

An announced policy of investigating all traffic accidents in which appreciable damage occurs, is incapable of fulfillment if too few officers are assigned to traffic investigative duties.

A policy of equal work loads for all patrol officers cannot be carried out if patrol officers are divided into three platoons or watches of equal size or if on a given watch they are assigned to areas arbitrarily established without considering the relative need for police service in each.

BUDGETARY CONTROL

The budget is a powerful device not only for implementing policy decisions but also for circumventing or nullifying them.

The budget allotment means first of all manpower—since about 85% of the budget in most police departments is spent for salaries. Let us again refer to our policy examples dealing with traffic accident investigation and detective duties. Even though the Chief has a completely free hand in deploying his total manpower he is forced by the pressing demands of other phases of police work to limit the percentage of his force he can afford to assign to traffic and detective duties. In light of rapidly rising crime rates, juvenile delinquency, and problems of traffic control, an inadequate budget for salaries means an inadequate implementation of policies because of insufficient manpower available to be assigned.

The budget can be used to implement or circumvent policies in many other ways. For example, failure to include secret service or vice operating funds in a police budget would materially reduce the effectiveness of whatever number of men had been assigned to vice law enforcement and failure to budget for an adequate number of automobiles might immobilize a number of officers assigned to detective duties and so prevent them from making personal follow-ups on all crime reports.

TRAINING

It is not what policemen are told—but what they accept that counts. For this reason training must involve far more than just telling and it must, of course, have among its objectives, in addition to the development of knowledge and skills, the development of proper attitudes and motivation. No matter how proper the policies of a department may be and how well known to the rank and file policeman; they will be ineffective if the policemen have an indifferent attitude toward their work, their superiors, their department, and the public.

Types of training and training methods are, I am sure, familiar to all of you. I desire, however, to stress the value of the Conference Method. Conferences are a form of communication, the objectives of which are to gain understanding and—as a result of group participation—acceptance. Meetings that are convened simply to express opinions or issue orders are not conferences. The elements that identify a conference are its purpose, the presence of a leader, a small group, member participation, and the absence of speeches.

In administration the conference is important as a medium for sharing knowledge and securing more effective action. Conferences cannot be used for the one-way transmission of orders and policies. They are used most successfully when they precede, parallel, or follow such transmissions. Recent studies of learning, perception, and motivation indicate that lectures may be as effective as conferences for teaching something, but no method surpasses the small-group discussion for producing action. Action is not the inevitable result of discussion but when conference members achieve a decision, action can be more confidently expected than it can be following a lecture, an interview, or the issuance of a written directive.

Let us again consider the example policy of strict enforcement of laws dealing with commercialized vice. How can training be used to implement this policy? Through good training methods, especially conferences, officers of all ranks—assigned to all phases of the police operation—can be made to realize that vice operations are not inconsequential activities which involve only those persons who willingly participate, but rather a major social and economic problem closely allied with major crime. In these training sessions it can be shown that profits from vice are the principal support of bigtime racketeering and gangsterism. From time immemorial vice activities have been the major props of the underworld. Obviously, the effective enforcement of laws intended to curb such commercialized illegal activities,

will go far in crippling the power of organized crime. There is perhaps no more important police function than the one of dealing effectively with law violations which serve as the backbone of the organized underworld. A training approach of this nature will tend to impress upon officers the vital importance of vice law enforcement and to motivate them to carry out the departmental policy.

DISCIPLINE

The role of discipline—both positive and negative—in encouraging compliance with departmental policies will probably be readily conceded. The role of discipline in securing compliance with departmental policies is substantial. It is in fact, for this purpose, one of the important tools of management. In its broadest sense, discipline is not a negative force but rather a form of training. It is internal—a mental attitude—a habit of obedience. A practical police officer has said, "A disciplined patrolman possesses that indefinable something which makes him responsive to order and authority."

Policemen cannot carry out policies unless they know what the policies and the related rules and regulations are. Failure to supply the rank and file policemen with up-to-date copies of departmental policies and rules and regulations often leads to friction between patrolmen and their supervisors. Rules of conduct, methods of procedure, and the authority of the various ranks, should be made available to each officer in such a form that new regulations can be currently added. All men should be familiarized with the contents of this manual or rule book. Policemen are frequently heard to complain that they have not been informed of their duties, or standards of conduct expected of them. Too often, rules and regulations are filed away in the captain's or lieutenant's desk only to be brought out as a basis for negative discipline. It cannot be expected that all policemen will intuitively know how to properly conduct themselves without adequate training. It follows then that policemen must be so indoctrinated with departmental policies, standards of conduct, and rules and regulations, that they not only will know what they should do under a given set of circumstances, but will feel impelled to do the right thing in the right way.

A poorly disciplined force will not carry out departmental policies. Since discipline starts before a man is hired, the first line of defense against failure of policemen to carry out policies is proper recruiting methods. Discipline starts before a man is hired because certain men are not, and never will be amenable to discipline. To wait until they have been recruited, trained and placed in actual service before removing them is inefficient and makes the implementation of policy more difficult.

In recruiting men for police service the personal factor of greatest importance to police discipline, and the one we know lease how to measure, is that of temperament. It is very seldom that a policeman becomes a disciplinary problem because of a low I.Q.; because his knowledge of police science is inadequate; or because he cannot climb a six-foot wall. He is much more apt to fail to follow department policies because of defects in temperament or character which lead others to describe him as overbearing, antagonistic, surly, emotionally unstable, daydreaming, weak, or dishonest. William P. Rudledge, at one time Chairman of the Police Committee, International Association of Chiefs of Police, said, "Intelligence, honesty, courage, good nature, and emotional stability are all essentials of a good policeman, but are not determined from letters of recommendation, a doctor's examination, or ability to read the rule book."

We attempt to get at these factors of temperament in the oral interview, but not too successfully because of the many limitations involved. Paper and pencil tests for temperament, although not as yet widely accepted as being reliable, are being experimented with in several of the larger departments.

Psychiatric and psychological examinations by qualified persons are proving very valuable in weeding out applicants who are temperamentally unsuited for police service. These examinations, although initially expensive, will repay the department many times through the elimination of only one emotionally unstable applicant.

The one recourse which is available to all departments is the character investigation. This should not only become a standard recruiting procedure, but the procedure must be refined and intensified. Character letters are in themselves almost valueless. At one time the rules for recruiting policemen in one of the largest cities in the country provided that the candidate must furnish two character references, and if these proved unsatisfactory he must give two more. Under such rules it is difficult to see how anyone could be disqualified from the standpoint of character.

A personal investigation should be made, not only through the character references given, but also at the schools attended by the candidate, his previous places of employment, his associates, neighbors, and local businessmen.

No matter what methods are adopted, the police authorities should have the final decision as to the qualifications of a candidate, for no matter how quickly a police department discovers the shortcomings or misconduct of its members, and no matter how completely it applies negative discipline, the damage will have been already done.

The probationary period should be considered a part of the recruiting process; for not until the recruit goes into the firing line of actual police duty will we have a real test of his aptitude for police work. Few depart-

ments have been sufficiently critical in reviewing their recruits while on probation; and as a result, a golden opportunity is being lost to improve police discipline and consequently policy implementation by weeding out the misfits.

There are several possible reasons for the existence of this situation. The customary six months probationary period is not adequate to obtain an accurate picture of a recruit's abilities and weaknesses—a year is suggested as a more appropriate period of time. Another important reason is that the supervisors have not generally been given adequate tools with which to do the job; for example, few departments make provision for recording favorable and unfavorable incidents, or specific conduct of probationers, much being left to the unsupported opinion of supervisors. Probably the greatest single factor, however, is a lack of courage on the part of supervisors—a desire to be "popular," and to avoid unpleasant situations.

Negative discipline is obtained by the use of punishment or the fear of penalties. This form of discipline is designed primarily for the weak and deficient, although it affects all members of the force because they are potentially subject to it.

The negative disciplinary authority of each level of supervision should be clearly established and recorded. Good discipline receives a severe set-back when action of supervisors is overruled.

Whatever authority is considered desirable to give to each level of supervision, should be established in writing and made known to all. Because this has not been done in many cases in the past, police supervisors frequently complain that they do not know their authority.

Many police supervisors hesitate to take negative disciplinary action which will require their appearance before a trial board or committee. They complain that under such circumstances they themselves are too often "placed on trial." Supervisors who have this attitude are often the ones who go before boards or commissions with no evidence other than their unsupported opinions. The same supervisors would not think of going to trial in a criminal case, or permitting one of their men to do so, without gathering, in advance, all available facts to prove the case. In disciplinary matters, to wait until the hearing has been scheduled to gather such evidence, will be too late, for it must be recorded as it takes place. A record should be made of actual incidents, events, or offenses as they occur, for modern disciplinary procedure requires the preparation of cases in a manner similar to that used in preparation of criminal cases for trial.

Too often negative disciplinary action is taken as a result of repeated infractions, none of which has been discussed with the offender. Civil Service and other trial boards want not only to be presented with specific infractions of the rules at particular dates, times, and places, but also, they want to be assured that the supervisors have taken every opportunity to warn, reprimand, and rehabilitate the offender. If supervisors have not lived up to their responsibilities in this respect, they have only themselves to blame for their embarrassment.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The second in this important series of two articles will appear in the next issue of POLICE.* ★★★

CLUES AND LEADS . . .

(Cont'd from pg. 58)

(5) That an impending apprehension, inventory, audit, inspection, investigation, or transfer of custody might have revealed evidence of crime, shortages, improper activity, or negligence.

(6) That there was jealousy, ill will, or friction between an employer and an employee or between a superior and a subordinate.

(G) Intent. Intent to set fire to a building may be established by determining the following:

(1) That a person removed property of value from a building or attempted wrongfully to dispose of items that were not his own before the fire started.

(2) That previous to the fire and contrary to normal habit or practice, personal property was either left in or moved into a building.

(3) That measures were taken to deny normal access to the building or area or to impede the entry of firemen or the utilization of their equipment.

(4) That fire-fighting equipment and fire control systems on the premises were moved from their normal locations or were rendered unserviceable previous to the fire.

(5) That contrary to normal practice, flammable materials were allowed to accumulate where they would start or accelerate the spread of a fire.

(6) That a heating or electrical device or system was tampered with in such a way as to make a fire likely.

(7) That doors, windows, transoms, and ventilating systems were, contrary to normal practice, opened or shut so as to facilitate the spread of a fire.

(8) That devices or materials capable of starting or accelerating a fire were placed in the building.

(9) That communicating systems or automatic warning devices were tampered with or rendered unserviceable previous to the burning.

(10) That firemen were deliberately not summoned immediately after the fire was discovered: that firemen were summoned but misdirected so as to delay their arrival; or that a person attempted to prevent or delay watchmen or guard personnel from reporting the fire.

(11) That a person made a statement or committed an act that was witnessed, indicating his intention to set a fire.

(12) That a person attempted to hire or to procure through coercion, threats, or appeals to friendship the assistance of another person in the setting of a fire. ★★★

University Police Training in the Orient

NEW POLICE COLLEGE IN FREE CHINA

By Ko-wang Mei

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Prior to the Red invasion of the Republic of China, the Central Chinese Government was following a well ordered plan under which a selected group of young Chinese police administrators were sent to the United States for advanced police training. Up until the time catastrophe struck, seventeen of these young career police officials were received in this country and of this number, seven — including the author, Dean Mei Ko-wang — were assigned to the Department of Police Science and Administration at the State College of Washington (now Washington State University) for advanced training. All of these young men had completed work at the college level, most of them with University degrees, and all were graduates of the Central Chinese Police Academy and serving in various administrative capacities in the Chinese police system, at the time of their admission to American educational institutions.*

Dean Mei is a graduate of the Yale Senior Middle School (then a China branch of Yale University)–1936; the Central Chinese Police Academy–in Chungking –1940; and the Central Political Institute in 1943. In addition to his studies, he was serving as Deputy Inspector of the Central Police Station in Chungking during the period from 1940 to 1942. He became Secretary of the Chinese Central Police Academy in 1942 and served as Instructor in that institution from 1943 to 1944, the time of his arrival (at the age of twenty-six) on the campus of the Washington State University. Here, he distinguished himself as a student and researcher, taking the Bachelor of Science degree in Police Science and Administration in June of 1945 and completing the requirements for the Master of Arts degree in this professional major in 1946, when he returned to his homeland. He so captivated the interest of those who knew him that students and faculty joined to send with him a bank draft for $1200 in favor of his father, a Christian minister, to aid in the restoration of his church, previously sacked by invading Japanese forces.

Upon returning to Formosa, Dean Mei served his government in various administrative capacities until he became Dean of the Central Chinese Police College, where he is responsible for the training of that nation's police forces. It is a pleasure to open the pages of the Journal to this distinguished young man and his colleagues in the following article written exclusively for POLICE, in which he presents the story on the patterns of police training in the Free China of today.

Address: Ko-wang Mei, Dean of the Central Police College, Taipei, Taiwan (Formosa), China.

The Central Police College, though an institution with a long history, is a new college in many aspects. Taking Taipei in Formosa as its present site, it is the highest institute of learning for students of police science in Free China. The College offers to students such fields of specialization as *Criminal Law and Its Enforcement, Police Science and Administration* and *Scientific Investigation and Identification.* The educational system of the College has been greatly improved and it is divided into three parts:

a) University education: admits high-school graduates; a four-year education is given. The students graduate with the Bachelor of Law degree.

b) College education: admits patrolmen or sergeants who have at least served two years in the police force; a two-year education is given.

c) In-service training: accepts police officials with the rank of lieutenant or higher; special training is given to them. The length of training varies according to needs.

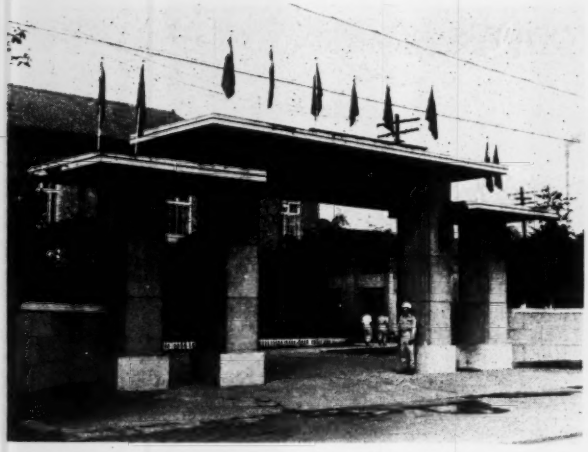
At the present time the College is open to men only.

All graduates, at either of the above university and college levels, are given a six-month internship in various police departments immediately after their graduation and are commissioned as police officials, from the rank of lieutenant and above, after the internship. The Ministry of Interior is responsible for the dispatch and assignment of the graduates.

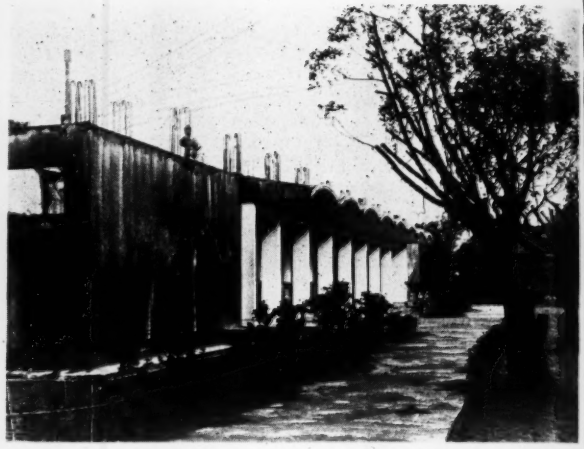
HISTORY

The Central Police College was established in 1936 in Nanking, the capital of the Republic of China. It was commissioned by the National Government that this College should be the only institution for the training of police officials for the nation as a whole. It was decided at the very birth of the College that in order to meet the requirements of modern police personnel, all students should receive intensive training in law, scientific police techniques and military discipline. At that time, only a two-year course was given. Graduates were acknowledged by the Ministry of Education to have the same academic standing as junior college graduates. The Ministry of Defence considered them to have the same qualification as those of commissioned second lieutenants.

When the Sino-Japanese War broke out, the College moved in wartime to the capital, Chungking. It returned to Nanking after V-J Day. In addition to the Nanking campus, the College established six branches and one training center in Peiping, Canton, Sian, Chungking, Tihua, Changchun and Taipei, respectively, to meet the urgent demands of recruiting thousands of new police officials. As a matter of fact, more than fifty per cent of police officials were graduates of this College (the present rate is about eighty per cent). They have rendered excellent service to the nation in the field of public safety.



Entrance to the Central Chinese Police College.



Police Science Laboratory Building.

In 1950, the Chinese Communists overran the mainland of China. All the above branches were abandoned and the College closed down. However, the Taipei Training Center remained. By that time only in-service training was given.

By 1954, in view of the improved national situation, the Central Police College was re-established by the order of President Chiang Kai-shek. It took the Taipei Police Training Center for the basic site and started to build a new College. Since then, it had been enlarged steadily. In July 1955, the College had only 203 new recruits. Now the enrollment of the College has increased to 429, and the university program was established in 1957.

FACULTY AND STUDENT BODY

The administration of the College is controlled by the President and with the Dean as his "chief of staff." In addition, there are sixty-two faculty and staff members. The faculty members include the authorities of law, distinguished professors and experts in scientific investigation and identification who are concurrently teachers in other universities and colleges in Taipei. The professors of law hold Doctoral and Master's degrees from American, European and Japanese universities. Police professors and instructors received their education either from the U. S. or from Japan. But owing to the newly established university education, the College suffers a shortage of outstanding criminalists (scientific experts in crime detection and identification), psychiatrist and jurists.

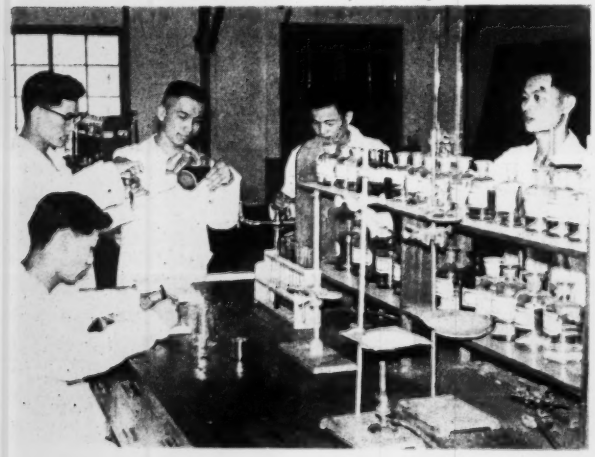
The student body, during the spring semester of 1959, was distributed as follows:

University Class	104
College Classes	185
In-service Class	140
Total	429

COURSES OF STUDY AND DEGREE

Academically, the university and college educational programs of this College are divided into two departments: (a) the Administrative Department and (b) the Criminal Investigation and Identification Department. Courses of the former

Students learn laboratory techniques.



Dean Mei Ko-wang explains Laboratory methods to government officials.

His Excellency, President Chiang Kai-shek arrives for an official inspection of the Central Police College.

place more emphasis on laws, while those of the latter concern the natural and practical sciences. In addition, the university class students must complete all requirements in law courses of a university law school. This means that the curriculum is particularly heavy, but will result in the improved quality of our graduates.

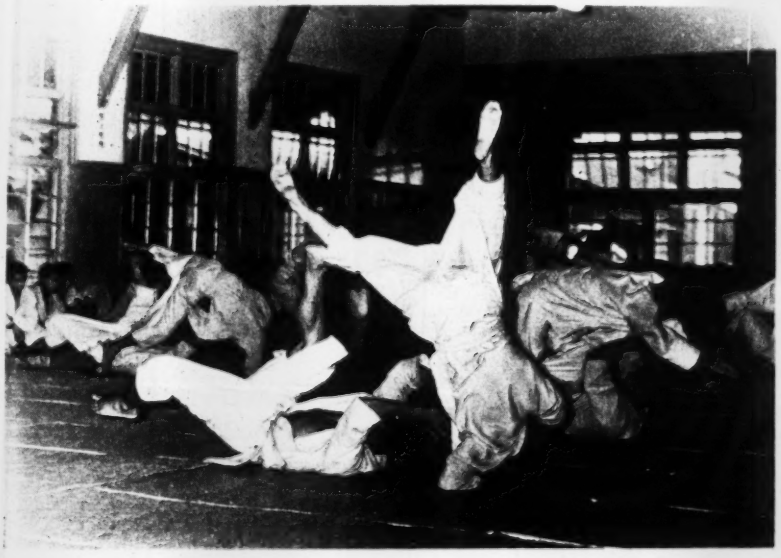
The Central Police College confers the degree of Bachelor of Law upon the four-year students at the end of the four-year curriculum. Others become qualified police officials without a degree.

INSTALLATION AND NEW BUILDING

All of the students are required to reside at the College, where sufficient dormitory and classroom space are provided. There is a library with more than 40,000 books. A police laboratory is available equipped with various instruments such as: polygraph, metal-detector, comparison microscope, micro-recorder, spectograph, ultra-violet lamps, fingerprinting apparatus and nearly one hundred related items. Besides, police dogs and carrier-pigeons are kept in training all the time for student training.

A most up-to-date science laboratory was completed in May 1959. It was specially designed for university level students who major in scientific crime investigation and identification. The building includes four laboratories; namely chemistry, physics, biology, physiology and psychology. It is the best science laboratory among all police school laboratories in the Orient.

A class in Judo goes through a morning work-out in the Police Gymnasium.



OUTLOOK

The Central Police College is dedicated to the recruiting and training of top-notch police officials for the Republic of China. The success or failure of this College means a great deal to public safety of our country. That is why the educational program of this College should not fail and be kept most up-to-date. It also explains why we should lift the education of the College to university level. However, university education in a police college is a new experiment. There is much to be done. But we are confident that we are heading in the right direction. Thus we are watching our steps very carefully and looking forward to a new era in police education in view of the establishment of this "new" police college in Free China. ★★★

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You Can Help Prevent Crime!

A Message from your Police Department

EDITOR'S NOTE: *An increasing number of Police Departments are making a special effort to inform the people they serve concerning procedures and precautions they can take in the prevention of crime. Reproduced herewith verbatim is a folder issued to the citizens of Santa Ana, California, by Chief Edward J. Allen. This is good police work and the constructive results of this type of police contact with the public has been amply demonstrated over and over again. What follows may prove suggestive to other Departments in promoting cooperation with the police.*

The Santa Ana Police Department is always ready to protect you, your family and your property. Radio-equipped police cars and motorcycles continually patrol the streets, but the effectiveness of the police in crime prevention is limited unless it has the co-operation of every citizen in Santa Ana. Preventing crime is quite as important as solving one after it has been committed. Moreover, it has far greater utility value from the point of view of time, effort and money.

One of the most effective means of preventing crime is through public alertness—a public aware of its responsibilities and willing to co-operate with its police department.

How You Can Co-operate.

When you observe suspicious persons or happenings, do not attempt a personal investigation. Telephone the Police *immediately*. Phone KImberly 2-4411. (If you do not remember the number just ask for police). When connected, tell quickly and distinctly:

1. Your name, address and telephone number.
2. Location where police are needed.
3. Brief account of what happened.
4. Description of persons involved. Look for something distinctive.
5. License number and description if automobile involved.

If you witness an accident or crime, don't take it for granted that the police have been called. Phone the Police Department if no officers are observed at the scene.

Your Police Department feels that it is better to investigate a hundred reports than have a single offense occur which may have been prevented.

CO-OPERATE

If Stopped by Police:

Do not be offended if questioned as to your identity and business by a police officer. He doesn't know everyone. He will have a very good reason, which undoubtedly will be unknown to you.

YOUR BELONGINGS

Never leave valuable clothing, rugs or furs on the line when going out, or overnight.

When having a party or entertaining guests, do not leave their valuables on a back bedroom bed for some window-opener.

Do not leave packages loose in your car while you finish shopping. Lock them in the trunk.

Your Money!

Your purse or package may be stolen if you lay it down on a counter while examining other merchandise.

Do not accept checks without positive identification and investigation.

Keep a List of Your Valuables.

Make a record of the numbers, monograms, initials or jewelers' scratch marks on your valuables. Have an accurate description available. List serial numbers of watches, firearms, electric motors on sweepers, fans, etc.

WARN YOUR CHILDREN

Bicycles.

Record bicycle serial numbers; they are on the bottom of the frame. Have your children lock their bikes, especially at school, in the park, or while visiting the movie theatre. The City of Santa Ana has an ordinance requiring all owners of bicycles to register them at the license bureau in the City Hall. This helps the police to recover the stolen bicycles.

Warn Children Against Sex Offenders.

Tell your children not to be friendly toward strangers and to shun any advances that may be made toward them. All children, boys as well as girls, should be warned never to accept rides from strangers *under any circumstances*. Any young person who is forced to walk through any lonely, poorly populated area, at any time of the day or night, should take a companion along. Emphasize to your children the importance of taking a license number and a description of car and offender if they are molested and to report offenders immediately to the Police Department.

Juvenile Traffic Offenders.

The police are often forced to arrest many teen-age boy and girl drivers. Many times their recklessness and unsound judgment have resulted in serious accidents. To drive safely they must realize their responsibility.

Persons 16 years or older may be issued a driver's license upon application. The state law provides that criminal charges may be filed against any person who allows his child or ward to operate a motor vehicle without a driver's license. ★★★

The Connecticut Resident State Police System

By James H. Ellis

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Largely unnoticed by most observers in the American police field, a new pattern of police administration has been emerging during the past quarter century—primarily in the east—in which local police departments are replaced by a detachment of state police under a contractual relationship with the State. In the smaller communities, police requirements may involve the assignment of only one State Trooper. Under this arrangement, police service is received on a cost basis under contract with the State Police and the municipality is policed by traditionally well trained officers free from the handicap of local political pressures and local ties, with the taxpayer enjoying a high order of police protection at reduced expense.*

As a brilliant example of this new development, the Journal is pleased to present to its readers throughout the nation the following exclusive article concerning the Resident State Police System in Connecticut. The author is a research assistant for the Connecticut Public Expenditure Council. From March 1959 to February 1960, he was in charge of the Crime Analysis Unit, Office of Planning and Research in the St. Louis Police Department. He graduated from the School of Police Administration and Public Safety at Michigan State University with high honors and holds the B. S. degree in law enforcement. He was formerly a patrolman with the Police Department at Barnstable, Mass., and served three and one-half years with the 42nd Air Police Squadron (SAC). The Journal extends its appreciation to Mr. Ellis and to Commissioner Leo J. Mulcahy of the Connecticut State Police for their courtesy in making these materials available.

In 1947, the Connecticut State Police began a method of policing so unusual that students of police administration might have been justified in predicting an early end to the plan. But instead of disappearing, the resident state police program has tripled in authorized size and shows indications of even greater growth.

In assuming the primary role in a system that allowed small towns to contract for full-time services of a trooper, the Connecticut State Police began a unique chapter in their long history. Among the state police pioneers, the Connecticut State Police operate out of eleven strategically located barracks. Rural areas have always relied heavily on the organization. There are one hundred and sixty-nine towns and cities, and an estimated 2,449,870 people within Connecticut's 5,009 square miles, but only seventy-nine municipal police departments. Although statutory provisions require the state police to concentrate their patrol in the unprotected towns, containing about ten per cent of the population, Connecticut troopers do have full police power throughout the state.

A noteworthy aspect of the program has been the almost total lack of opposition. Traditional Yankee independence and home rule advocacy have not appeared to block the program. And there has been no suggestion that the program represents centralization of police power and its inherent dangers. This is unusual because the region is traditionally conservative, and administrative control in Connecticut is often decentralized.

ORIGIN OF THE PROGRAM

The late Commissioner Edward J. Hickey originated the plan in Connecticut. Appearing before a legislative committee in 1947, the Commissioner explained that the plan would provide a trained trooper to meet the problems arising in towns without full-time police protection. Hickey added that about fifty towns had asked for such an arrangement, and he noted that he had already assigned "five or more" men to different towns, with no expense to the towns, because it reduced "a great deal of travel, and a great deal of expense." Hickey, however, cautioned that the costs had become a burden to his department, and if the towns were not allowed to share the expense, the program would have to be abandoned. Hickey wanted two towns to contract for a single state officer so that the costs could be split three ways.

Theoretically, the program was designed for towns just large enough to require more than occasional state patrol, but not big enough to support a police department. The need was apparent. Outside of the state police there was no effective agency to handle the rural problem. Unlike sheriffs in other regions of the country, New England sheriffs have long played insignificant roles as law enforcement officers. They have mainly administered the jails and houses of correction. In Connecticut, even this responsibility will be taken out of their hands on October 1, 1960.

All towns with resident officers have several constables, as do most Connecticut municipalities. Constables are usually elected, and although they have police powers, they have not represented an effective police system. In the Colonial period, constables were of some significance, but today's Connecticut constable in uninfluential. Lacking discipline, supervision and training, they have diminished to the point where their only semblance of importance relates to process serving and pedestrian regulation.

Neither sheriffs nor constables offered serious opposition to the resident police plan when it was initially advocated. Some of the constables were uneasy, but it was made clear that their precarious position would not be

Address: James H. Ellis, 118 A-1 Park Street, Manchester, Connecticut.

Connecticut State Trooper Donald E. Grover discusses town problems in front of the Town Hall with 1st Selectman Norman Adams, Town Clerk, Mrs. F. E. Miller, and Mrs. Howard Hayes, Town Secretary. Trooper Grover is thirty years old and lives in East Granby with his wife and four children. He has been a resident trooper duty for about six months.

endangered. In fact, quite the opposite has resulted. Resident officers have improved the lot of constables in their towns by providing them with much needed training. In general, a good relationship exists between the two.

THE LEGISLATION

The popularity of the program is indicated by the fact that since the initial act of 1947, the legislature has repeatedly extended its coverage. Currently, resident state police are governed by 1959 Public Act No. 361. The act authorizes the state police commissioner to appoint up to thirty resident state policemen. Such appointees, although in addition to the regular strength of the department, possess the same powers and rights, and are subject to the same rules and regulations as the regular troopers. The act further states that any town, or two or more adjoining towns, lacking a police department may contract for a resident officer. Towns receiving such service must equitably share the total costs. Shares are determined by the state police commissioner and approved by the commissioner of finance and control. Contracts cover two-year periods and are subject to the approval of the attorney-general. Finally, the act provides the state police commissioner with supervisory and directional powers over all resident officers.

The original act differed from the current legislation in that the former authorized "not more than ten" resident officers, and required at least two towns to share a single trooper. The latter requirement was generally an obstacle to towns seeking resident troopers. Between 1947 and 1954, only three resident troopers were assigned. However, there were several towns interested in the plan but unable or unwilling to join with a neighboring town.

In 1951, the provisions for determining the costs to the towns were clarified. In describing the towns' shares the legislation was amended to introduce the word "equitable." In addition, the state police commissioner was designated to determine the shares, subject to the approval of the commissioner of finance and control.

A major change came in 1955 when the legislature increased the number of officers to fifteen, and allowed "any town" without a department to avail itself of the service. The effect of allowing single towns to contract for resident officers was immediate. The need to align with a neighbor had restricted a number of interested towns, but once the requirement was removed, the program gained momentum. Consequently, the 1957 legislature increased the limit to twenty-five. The next Assembly, meeting in 1959, against increased the authorized number, this time to its present thirty. In a relatively short time, the added five vacancies were filled, and there are presently thirty towns employing thirty resident troopers. The 1961 Assembly will almost certainly consider a further increase.

The history of the legislation indicates that the plan is a popular one, and it is noteworthy that the popularity stems almost entirely from the fact that it meets a need. The system has had little publicity, and the state police have never attempted to sell the measure to towns. The former have judiciously avoided being placed in a position suggestive of empire building. Town officials, especially in the early years, often learned of the system through casual conversations. Although wider publicity probably would have accelerated the program, it is obvious that the state police policy of non-advocacy has strengthened the system. State encroachment is not likely to become an issue when the towns seek out the state.

COMPOSITION OF PARTICIPATING TOWNS

Although a standard manpower-to-population ratio is non-existent, it can be conceded that the ratio should normally be at least one officer for every one thousand population. According to the 1958 *Uniform Crime Reports*, the national average for cities under 10,000 is 1.3 full-time employees per 1,000 inhabitants. Fifty-five of the seventy-nine Connecticut police departments meet the one to one thousand ratio, but only one of the thirty towns with resident troopers meets this arbitrary standard. In spite of the fact that regular state police patrols continue to operate in resident officer towns, a number of these towns fail to meet the one to one thousand rule-of-thumb.

The average population for the thirty towns is 4,320. The towns range from a low of 690 to a high of 11,900. The latter figure represents the town of Mansfield, and it includes almost 5,000 University of Connecticut students residing in town. The other towns in the top five

Top—At his police car, where he is receiving a message from Troop Headquarters in Hartford.

Bottom—A group of 3rd grade children receiving some pointers on safety from Trooper Grover outside the Center School in East Granby.

have populations of 7,600, 7,500, 7,300 and 6,900.

The town of Wilton, with 7,600 inhabitants, is unique in that it has supported its resident trooper with three specially appointed constables. Present legislation authorizes only one resident officer to a town. Wilton officials see the need for added manpower because the resident officer necessarily has to neglect routine police matters when emergencies arise.

The smallest town in Connecticut to support a police department is Sprague. With a poulation of 2,700, Sprague has a chief and seven patrolmen. There are six towns below the 4,320 population average of resident officer towns that have organized departments.

Further analysis reveals that there are forty-seven towns under 3,000 population without full-time police or resident officers. On the surface it would appear that a number of these towns more closely approximate the theoretical size of a town requiring resident police than do the ten towns with populations in excess of 5,000 that presently have resident troopers.

All thirty towns are generally considered rural. In size, they average 31.4 square miles. The range runs from a low of 11.7 square miles to a high of 61.0 square miles. Five of the ten towns with populations above 5,000 have an area in excess of the average. Newtown, with the third largest population, 7,500 inhabitants, has the second greatest area, 58.0 square miles.

Any police manpower analysis must also consider a town's assets, or its ability to pay. The standard measure in Connecticut is the grand list, or the local assessed value of taxable real estate and tangible personal property. The average grand list figure for the thirty towns is $14,887,138. Thirteen of the towns exceed this average. Sherman is low with assessed valuation at $4,300,831, and the high is Wilton's $30,553,180. There are twenty-three towns with grand list figures falling within this range which support their own full-time police. The town of Derby, population 11,500, 5.5 square miles and a grand list of $27,314,423, supports a twenty-one man department.

Crime statistics are always pertinent to manpower considerations, but comparative statistics for the smaller towns are not readily available. However, it should be noted that Connecticut enjoys a reasonably good Index Crime rate. The 1958 *Uniform Crime Reports* show that only thirteen other states have a lower state Index Crime rate. The Connecticut rate is 653.8 per 100,000 inhabitants, while the United States total rate is 896.9.

The foregoing statistics are presented to indicate the diversity of the towns involved in the program. Though the figures only superficially describe the situation, they do suggest that local support of the police function varies widely in Connecticut. On the surface, it would appear that some of the larger towns in the resident officer system are capable of supporting their own departments, and in fact, may need them. On the other hand, it is a tribute to the Connecticut State Police when towns with an apparent choice elect to be policed by a single trooper.

GOVERNING POLICY

A standardized policy governs all resident officers. Since supervision and control are constant concerns, resident officers must keep in close contact with their troop commander, and they are subject to routine inspection. With the exception of holiday coverage, resident officers for the most part set up their own patrols.

To insure the fullest possible protection, resident officers cannot leave their towns for any length of time without first securing troop permission and then notifying the first selectman. Troop commanders may employ resident officers outside of their towns only in extreme emergencies. In such cases, the resident officer is relieved as soon as possible.

The suggestions of the first selectmen, ex officio chiefs-of-police in towns without organized police departments, are given full consideration, and their requests are followed if they are reasonable or in accordance with state police policy. However, it is noted that local politics and pressure do not become an issue. Resident officers work with selectmen, not for them.

Resident troopers are not expected to work around the clock. Night calls, particularly after 11:00 P. M., are handled by the local barracks. The state police feel a special responsibility toward resident officers. Therefore, regular state patrols commonly operate in their towns.

The duty is voluntary, and first selectmen are allowed to choose a specific trooper. All are veterans, and the thirty positions are in excess of the regularly authorized 450 men of the department. Resident troopers are family men, which is an advantage. An office in a public building is preferred, but many officers work out of their homes. Under the latter arrangement, their wives are of considerable help in answering phone calls, thus maintaining continual communications. As family men, the officers readily become a part of the community. A close relationship is developed, one in which the townspeople look up to the officers and regard them as friends. Under this setup, the officers must use considerable discretion. Prosecution is not a primary concern if law and order can be maintained by following another course.

A $50.00 monthly rental allowance is granted to resident officers, and in effect, their homes become state police posts. The department's liability insurance extends to these homes. The regular $4.00 daily subsistence is granted to the men since they are away from the barracks facilities.

ADVANTAGES

Two important advantages, economy and efficiency, stem from the plan. Perhaps of more practical concern is the matter of economy. Towns pay approximately one-half of all costs. This includes salary, auto expenses, telephone, maintenance and clothing, amounting to about a $4,200 annual bill for a town. Mansfield has figured that the annual per capita cost for its resident officer is sixty cents. This becomes significant when it is noted that *The Municipal Year Book 1959* shows per capita expenditures on police in cities of 10,000 to 25,000 to be $9.36. Cities under 10,000 are not reported, but if they were, the figure would probably be considerably closer to $9.36 than to sixty cents.

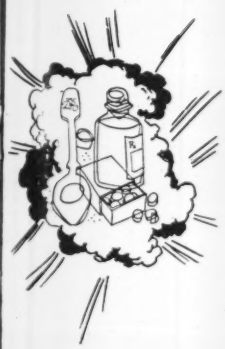
The efficiency of local law enforcement is also improved by this method. At the same time, uniform state police coverage is extended and intensified. And a high caliber of officer is involved, partly attributable to fine training, and partly to statewide recruitment. Depression era thinking—local jobs for local boys—does not constrict the recruiting base.

The big disadvantage of the metropolitan or state control system, namely, that local officials have no control over budgetary matters, is not present. But at the same time, the key advantage of state-control is obtained. The police function is removed from and not identified with local politics.

CONCLUSION

An unusual aspect of the program is the fact that supposedly conservative and independent towns have chosen to delegate a function traditionally vested in them. Though people have become rather dependent on big government, since law enforcement has a concept of power and regulation, it is one of the last things people will usually turn over to outsiders.

Observers of the Connecticut resident officer system unanimously agree that it is working well. Townspeople involved are impressed by the fact that for a nominal sum, the services of the highly trained and well equipped Connecticut State Police are readily available. And as State Police Commissioner Leo J. Mulcahy points out: "No town has ever given up its resident officer. Towns fight to get them." ★★★



Spoon Cases: A Quick Method Of Identifying Heroin

By William King

When a hype kit has been seized containing a spoon with some debris, solvent methods of identification of heroin are sometimes difficult and slow. Since many peddlers and dealers in narcotics are also addicts, it is important to establish the presence of heroin in the debris of a spoon taken from a known peddler-addict who has successfully concealed or disposed of his supply of narcotics at the time of his arrest.

Sometimes the spoon may contain as much as a grain of debris and no problem of identification is presented. But in those cases where only a thin film of debris is present in the spoon, the presence of heroin may be easily established by running the color reactions directly on portions of the spoon itself. A small drop of Marquis' reagent is placed on the inner surface of the spoon near the tip or the edge. As soon as the purple color characteristic of heroin has developed, the reagent is carefully washed off with a few drops of water from the wash bottle and the dampened spot dried with tissue. Then this process is repeated at an adjacent spot using Mecke's reagent.

Then a drop or two of mercuric iodide reagent is placed on another spot near the edge of the spoon and allowed to remain for a few seconds. The solution is then carefully shaken onto a slide and examined under the microscope for the characteristic crystals formed by this reagent with heroin. The dampened portion of the spoon is aagin carefully washed and dried and the spoon preserved for court presentation. This process will not use more than 15 to 20% of the inner surface of the spoon and ample surface will be left for another chemist to repeat the tests, if the court so desires.

Address: Lt. William King, Scientific Investigation Division, Los Angeles Police Department, Los Angeles, California.

The addict's spoon is of course nearly always blackened by the flame used in heating his solution. But this is not the case of a spoon or measuring instrument used by the peddler. In a recent case, a ¼ teaspoon capacity measuring spoon was the only item seized at the time of the arrest of the suspect. Here, a small quantity of white powder was found adhering to both the inner and outer surface of the spoon. The tests were all strongly positive. Obviously, this spoon was used for measuring heroin and not for addiction, and it is reasonable to conclude that the suspect was a dealer. In this case, no hypodermic needle marks could be found on the person of the suspect. The evidence was considered sufficient by the lower court to hold the defendant for trial by Superior Court.

Sometimes this same technique can be successfully used on the inner glass surface of a medicine dropper found in a hype kit. In this case, a drop or two of the mercuric iodide solution is drawn up into the lower part of the medicine dropper and after a few seconds ejected onto a slide and the slide examined for the characteristic crystals of heroin resulting from the reaction with the solution. The medicide dropper is carefully washed on the surface treated with the mercuric iodide solution and drained. It must be held in a vertical position during this process to prevent the spread of the liquids to other portions of the medicine dropper. The dropper is now held in a horizontal position and a drop of Mecke's solution injected with a hypodermic needle on a spot just above the spot treated with the mecuric iodide solution. After the characteristic color has developed, the solution is drained and the process repeated using Marquis' reagent. In case all three tests are positive, the presence of heroin is amply proven.

This department has never presented to court a medicine dropper case standing alone, but several spoon cases without additional physical evidence have been held sufficient to warrant a conviction for the possession of heroin. This same technique has been successfully applied to the tops of rubber balloons, funnels, mixing bowls, etc. Here, the suspect has inserted a grain or two of heroin into a rubber balloon by means of a funnel and tied off the portion contain the heroin and then cut off the top of the balloon. The debris adhering to the inner surface of these balloon tops and to the other items mentioned has been held sufficient for a conviction.

Spoon cases are sometimes bitterly fought by the defense attorneys who contend that the law was never intended to apply to such cases and a chemist reporting a positive finding may expect a rigorous cross examination.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Is there something unusual or unique about a case you have handled recently, or a new technique or procedure you have developed? You are invited to send details to the Editor for publication. As a channel of communication, the columns of the Journal are expressly available for the exchange of new ideas and information. Address all communications to the Editor, P. O. Box 837, College Station, Pullman, Washington.* ★

Police Planning and Research

OAKLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT

Oakland, California

PLANNING AND RESEARCH SECTION

An Abstract of Recent Projects

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Continuation of the report covering research and planning projects completed by the Oakland California Police Department.*

PROJECT NUMBER — TITLE

100. *REVISION OF POST CARD FORM FOR MISSING PERSONS DETAIL.* Information needs revising to bring it up to date.

101. *ARREST OF FOREIGN SEAMEN, NOTIFYING IMMIGRATION.* Immigrations have vital interest in such arrests and request that they be notified as soon as possible.

102. *RADIO CODE NOTEBOOK FORM.* Revised form used by all officers of KMA 301 codes.

103. *STORAGE OF GASOLINE AS EVIDENCE.* Gasoline can no longer be stored in Police Garage, must find other means of storing.

104. *RECEIPT FOR PROPERTY TAKEN FROM PRISONER AT TIME OF ARREST.* Revised format needed, carbon snap-out type preferable.

105. *PRISONER'S ORDER ON PROPERTY CLERK.* Revised format needed.

106. *REVISION OF FORM 536-517 (LETTER USED BY AUTO DETAIL).* Revised format needed.

107. *NOTICES FOR BICYCLE DETAIL.* Request for tags to be printed setting forth provisions of the OMC sections dealing with the licensing of bikes. Tags to be given to merchants to tie on bikes at time of sale.

108. *BUDGET ESTIMATES.* Need for special forms to be made for the purpose of reporting divisional budget requests.

109. *VENEREAL DISEASE QUARANTINE PROCEDURE.* Problem over legality of the jail being used as a place of quarantine, other than for arrested persons.

110. *PRISONER HOSPITALIZATION FORM.* Revise format and request the printing of same.

111. *INVENTORY OF CAPITAL EQUIPMENT IN POLICE DEPARTMENT.* In conjunction with City Auditor's Office, an inventory was taken of all capital outlay equipment in police department, and a General Order issued setting forth policy to be followed in future, for inventory of new equipment as received.

112. *WATCH COMMANDER'S WATCH REPORT.* Request for the printing of this form designed by Patrol Division for their use.

113. *ORDER TO RELEASE PRISONER OR REMOVE HOLD.* Form needs revision and its size specifications and make-up changed.

114. *AMBULANCE RUN LOG.* New form needed by Records Section to account for all ambulance runs.

115. *REPORT WRITING PROCEDURES, ARREST REPORT.* General Order requiring that witnesses' names be placed on Arrest Report in misdemeanor cases.

116. *REPORT WRITING PROCEDURES, FOLLOW-UP REPORT.* Changing some instances where this report will no longer be required, (PC Sec. 602, subsec. 5).

117. *CASE REPORT.* Procedures needed whereby the Prosecuting Attorney's Office will receive case reports made by investigative units.

118. *PROCEDURE FOR PLACING HOLDS.* Review of procedures involved in the service of both traffic and criminal warrants on prisoners.

119. *OUT-OF-TOWN-TRIPS.* Procedures needed governing such trips and the accounting of expenses encountered.

120. *TRANSPORTATION VEHICLES.* Need to control the use of those vehicles which are used to transport prisoners from outside jurisdictions to our jurisdiction.

121. *JAILOR'S COURT SHEET.* Revise format requested.

122. *REPORT WRITING PROCEDURES, HOSPITALIZATION.* Provide in General Order that this report will be prepared by Service Division rather than Patrol when prisoners are transported to hospital.

EDITOR'S NOTE: The report of the Oakland Police Department is in two parts; the second will appear in the next issue of POLICE.

123. *REVISION OF FIELD INTERROGATION REPORT.* Changes in format and print in notebook size.

124. *VEHICLES, PATROL WAGON SPECIFICATIONS.* Determine specifications for new wagons and write order for same.

125. *CONTAGIOUS DISEASE CONTACT REPORT.* Need for procedures in reporting all contacts by officers with persons having a contagious disease.

126. *POLICE CLERK'S UNIFORM (FEMALE).* Determine whether or not female police clerks can be required to wear uniforms and if so, draw up specifications for same.

127. *EX-CON REGISTRATION FORM.* Survey to ascertain the provisions of ordinances dealing with this subject in other cities and draw up such an ordinance for Oakland.

128. *NEW FORMS FOR INSPECTORS DIVISION.* Design new forms to record individual activity and detail activity.

129. *REVISE TECHNICIAN'S NOTEBOOK REPORT.* Revise to provide for more efficient use of same.

130. *CHECK RECEIPT FOR CHECK DETAIL.* Mimeographed form used frequently and should be printed and assigned form number, also print in notebook size.

131. *COST OF POLICE SERVICES FOR PROPOSED ANNEXATION.* Request by City Planning Commission for survey to determine cost of police service for parcel of land currently being considered for annexation into Oakland.

132. *"EL-TEC"—ELECTRONIC TRAFFIC EMERGENCY CONTROL.* Investigate the feasibility and costs of installing an "El-Tec" system in Oakland.

133. *REVISION OF GENERAL ORDER 24 (FINGERPRINTING OF JUVENILES).* Existing order too restrictive and in the best interests of law enforcement should be broadened.

The Journal serves as a central clearing house for information concerning planning and research in the American police field. Other Departments are invited to send in to the Editor reports covering planning and research projects which they have completed or have in progress.

134. *INSPECTORS' RECORD OF REPORTED ACTIVITY.* Devise simple method of providing supervisors in the Inspectors Division the information concerning the activity of men assigned to them.

135. *REVISION OF SERGEANT'S DAILY REPORT.* Present form does not serve any practical purpose, revised format to help improve supervision problems and provide commanding officers with information on crime conditions.

136. *SIGALERT.* Set up communications system of sig-alert in conjunction with other Bay Area law enforcement agencies.

137. *REPORT WRITING MANUAL—SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT, AMENDED.* Need for further clarification and use of this report, amend General Order.

138. *ABANDONED VEHICLE REPORT FORM.* Need for printing of this form, with revisions suggested by Radio and Auto Detail.

139. *OUT-OF-TOWN TRIP SHEET AND CASH EXPENDITURE VOUCHER.* Forms to be used by members when making out of town trips and keeping records of their expenses.

140. *PATROL DIVISION WATCH COMMANDER'S AUTHORITY DURING NIGHT WATCHES.* Amend Rules Manual and write General Order more clearly defining this authority.

141. *CHANGE IN UNIFORM SPECIFICATIONS.* Addition of the service star to be worn on the jackets.

142. *CLEARANCES AND CHANGES OF CLASSIFICATION.* Develop a policy statement which includes an adequate definition of each type of clearance and changes of classification.

143. *MONTHLY REPORT ON TRAFFIC PROTECTION.* Review need for report and devise some more efficient method of preparing it.

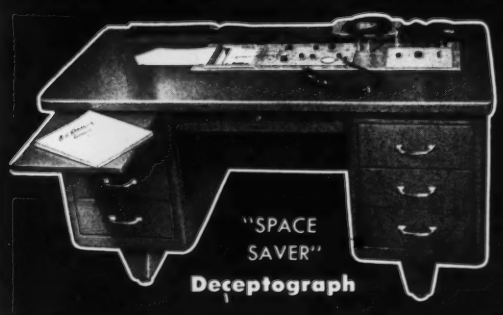
144. *RECEIPT FOR BEAT OFFICER WHEN PLACING MONEY IN EVIDENCE.* Research need for same, in light of existing Evidence Report.

145. *PROPERTY RELEASE PROCEDURE, SUPPLEMENT TO GENERAL ORDER 127.* Procedure to be followed in releasing property to provide a measure of protection for both officer and owner.

146. *PATROL DIVISION HOT SHEET.* Provide space on form for assignment addresses as received over KMA 301, and space to leave note for officer's relief.

147. *REPORT MANUAL (ARREST REPORT) NUMBER OF ARREST REPORTS ON MULTIPLE WARRANT ARRESTS.* Survey need of Court Clerk for extra copies of arrest report for each warrant served, rather than listing all on same report when all are for one court.

LIE DETECTORS



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148. *GENERAL ORDER ON REPORTING RECOVERED 503's.* Changes in Report Writing Manual concerning the completion of reports involved.

149. *CIVIL DEFENSE ALERT SIGNALS, BLUE SIGNAL ADOPTED.* Need to supplement General Order 124 due to adoption of blue signal alert by Civil Defense.

150. *DISPOSITION OF UNCLAIMED PERSONAL PROPERTY OF PRISONERS.* Develop a written procedure which will specify the manner in which unclaimed property of prisoners be disposed.

151. *BAIL-BOND REQUEST FORMS.* Need for revisions in the Bail Request Forms by prisoners.

152. *BUSINESS INFORMATION SHEET.* Burglary Prevention Program.

153. *MONTHLY REPORT OF INVESTIGATIVE ACTIVITY.* General Order to Investigative Divisions to submit monthly report of activity of members.

154. *VALUE OF LOST OR STOLEN PROPERTY.* Develop a policy on assignment of value to lost or stolen property and make necessary changes in Report Writing Manual, etc.

155. *SUBPOENA SERVICE PROCEDURE.* Evaluate and correct present procedure.

156. *S.P. RAILROAD VS. ABC-WEST OAKLAND CRIME AND ARREST STATISTICS.* Provide ABC with figures showing concentration of crime and arrests in area.

157. *HOLIDAY PAY FOR POLICE CLERKS.* Supplement to General Order 125 bringing Police Clerks under Holiday pay provisions of Charter.

158. *ACCUMULATION OF OVERTIME LIMITED.* Write

General Order to establish policy in conformity with Ordinance 4727 Sec. 1.201.

159. *POLICE CLERKS HOLIDAY PAY—1956 SURVEY.* Determine number of clerks who in 1956 had 11 holidays as a regular day off or who worked holidays.

160. *OVERTIME COMPENSATION QUESTIONNAIRE.* Re-evaluate policy regarding overtime, survey of 38 other cities.

161. *REVISION OF CITY MANAGER'S MONTHLY REPORT.* Make report more adequate for use by various divisions and reduce it from present large size to one more easily handled.

162. *POLICE AMBULANCE USE PROCEDURE.* Provide a means whereby the garage shall be notified in advance whenever the police ambulance is to be activated and to assign responsibility for the equipment.

163. *AMBULANCE SERVICE BILLING FORM.* Design form to be used by ambulance companies when billing citizens.

164. *CREATION OF PERSONNEL DIVISION, CREATION OF TRAINING DIVISION.* Write General Order establishing the above creations, abolishing present Personnel & Training Division.

165. *PERSONNEL TRANSFER POLICY AND PROCEDURE.* Prepare General Order outlining the policy and procedure of personnel transfers.

166. *ANNUAL VACATION LEAVE.* Draft a Special Order to provide 15 working day vacation for all sworn personnel.

167. *CHANGE IN WATCH PERIOD—VACATION PERIODS.* General Order to adopt watch period (6 weeks) long enough to handle the new vacation periods.

168. *PROCEDURE FOR RECORDING NALLINE TEST RECORDS.* Provide accurate and reliable method of recording number of individuals given Nalline, number of times, & results of tests.

169. *ESTABLISH PROGRAM FOR SEPARATE NON-SWORN CIVIL SERVICE CLASSIFICATION FOR JAIL PERSONNEL.* Make above survey and present to City Manager.

170. *STATEMENT FORMS FOR NOTEBOOK AND FIELD BINDER.* Need for forms in order for officer to take statement at the scene, form setting forth information required.

171. *POLICY ON ARSON REPORTS.* Define responsibility of Police & Fire Departments in cases of suspected arson or false fire alarms both as to initial report and follow-up investigation.

172. *RESERVE POLICE-PATROL WORK.* Set up General Order providing for use of Reserve Police on patrol duties.

173. *OVERTIME FOR COURT APPEARANCES.* General Order to establish policy on overtime compensation for court appearances.

174. *RIFLE SHOOTING IN CITY LIMITS.* Determine extent of problem and whether additional signs in certain areas are needed.

175. *FIREARMS REGISTRATION ORDINANCE.* Need for revisions in procedures and amending existing ordinances.

176. *EVIDENCE OR PROPERTY, RELEASE OF BY COURT.* Develop a procedure whereby the Property Clerk will be notified of the disposition of property which is removed for use in court.

177. *POLICY REGARDING ON-DUTY INJURY PROCEDURE.* Develop standard procedure for handling on-duty injuries and determine possibility of utilizing same in limited duty status.

178. *MANUALS—BINDERS FOR NEW MANUALS.* Determine size, cost, specifications as to materials, etc.

179. *AUCTION-INVENTORY FORM.* Design forms to be used by auction houses to list all merchandise to be auctioned.

180. *LAWS OF ARREST AMENDED—DETENTION PROCEDURES.* Obtain interpretation of 849 P.C. to determine its effect on our present booking procedures.

181. *DISPOSAL OF UNCLAIMED PROPERTY.* Determine legality of procedure for disposal at auction of unclaimed property.

182. *ANTI-LITTER CAMPAIGN.* Determine advisability of engaging in strict enforcement of anti-littering ordinances as opposed to non-punitive enforcement policy.

183. *FORMS CONTROL UNIT.* Establishing by General Order the Forms Control Unit.

184. *JAIL COST STUDY—SURVEY OF COUNTY JAIL COSTS.* Determine daily cost per prisoner charged by county jails to city agencies.

185. *SURVEY OF PAYROLL AND ACCOUNTING OPERATIONS.* Report of the job operations of this section.

186. *COMPUTING VACATION TIME DUE.* Draft General Order establishing uniform policy for computing vacation time on basis of 1¼ days for each calendar month.

187. *STUDY OF FOOT PATROL WORKLOAD.* Examine workload of men assigned to Foot Patrol and compare it to the men assigned to motorized patrol in same areas and on same watches.

188. *EXTRADITION PROCEDURES.* Set forth in General Order the procedures to be followed in extradition cases.

189. *REQUISITION AND TRANSPORTATION OF SUPPLIES.* Prepare General Order prohibiting Personnel from accepting or transporting in police vehicles any supplies, foodstuffs, etc. which are gifts to the City Jail.

190. *ADD TO O.M.C.—ILLEGAL TO PAWN PROPERTY UNDER A FALSE NAME.* Provide for a legal arrest of persons pawning, selling, exchanging property in pawn, buy and sell shops under a fictitious name or address.

191. *FIELD REPORT ROUTING.* Determine reasons for delays in routing of field reports to action agencies.

192. *ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES OF THE DEPARTMENT.* Construct a new organizational chart to conform to certain changes in the organizational relationships and draft a General Order embodying these changes.

193. *HOSPITALIZATION REPORT, RE-EVALUATION OF.* Determine the need for such report in the present organization.

194. *REVIEW OF GENERAL ORDER 177, (DISPATCHING AND OPERATION OF EMERGENCY VEHICLES).* Determine the effect of this order on civil litigation arising out of accidents involving city vehicle answering emergency call.

195. *CRIME REPORTS ON SCHOOLS.* Determine need for a General Order designating that the complainant in an offense involving school be indicated specifically by the name of the school.

196. *CONSOLIDATION OF OVERTIME ORDERS.* Consolidate all existing orders of overtime credit and compensation.

197. *DRUNK ARREST AND SECTION 849, SUBSECTION*

B2 OF THE P.C. Investigate and make a finding on certain facts concerning the release of persons arrested for intoxication only, pursuant to this P.C. Section.

198. *CITATION FOR VIOLATION OF CERTAIN CITY ORDINANCES, USE OF.* Investigate and make a finding on the proposed use of the citation process for bringing violators of certain city ordinances before the court.

199. *HOTEL-MOTEL ORDINANCE REQUIRING PRESENCE OF JUVENILES TO BE REPORTED.* Draft a proposed ordinance requiring hotel and motel operators to report the presence of juveniles.

200. *INVESTIGATOR'S ASSIGNMENT RECORD.* Form for use in the Inspectors Division to record work assignments.

201. *ARRESTS FOR INVESTIGATION VS. ARRESTS FOR MISDEMEANOR AND PLACEMENT OF HOLD.* Set forth policy of the department in General Order.

202. *PROCEDURE FOR COMMITTING PERSONS TO CITY JAIL FROM COURT.* Determine problems involved, particularly concerning the type of report needed.

203. *TIME RECORDERS, CONVERSION VS. REPLACEMENT COST (2400 HR. HEADS).* Study to determine the comparative cost of conversion of the present time recorders to 2400 hr. indicators or replacement of the present recorders with 2400 hr. units.

204. *HOLDING TAG-DESIGN FOR CARBON SNAP-OUT.* Revise format and have form made up as a 2-carbon snap-out form.

205. *SUPERIOR COURT SUBPOENA SERVICE.* Set forth in a General Order the procedure to be followed in processing Superior Court subpoenas at the service level.

206. *SURE-SHOT ALARM, QUALIFY AS PISTOL (12001 P.C.).* Determine if the sure-shot alarm qualifies as a pistol within the meaning of section 12001 P.C.

207. *MODUS OPERANDI REPORTING-ATTENTION.* Establish more suitable reporting methods for M.O. information.

208. *POLICE BEAT SURVEY.* Determine need for changing beats in light of crime situations in certain areas.

209. *SERVICE OF TRAFFIC WARRANTS ON OPD PERSONNEL.* General Order placing responsibility on Commanding Officers for the service of such warrants.

210. *ADULT AUTHORITY REPLY LETTER.* Revised format indicated, to report more pertinent information on potential parolees.

211. *POLICE ACTION IN CASES OF REFUSAL TO PAY FARE (235 OTC).* State departmental policy in the form of a General Order regarding enforcement of Section 235 O.T.C.

212. *SURVEY OF CIVILIAN PERSONNEL DUTIES IN INSPECTORS DIVISION.* Survey to determine work load, duties of clerks and typists, etc.

213. *PROCEDURE FOR HANDLING ANIMALS IN POSSESSION OF ARRESTEES.* Determine what provisions can be made to care for pet animals in possession of people who have been arrested (pet with person at time of arrest).

214. *PROCEDURE FOR REPORTING OFF SICK OR INJURED.* Review current procedures existing on a department-wide basis for hitting off sick and determine if a standard procedure is in order.

215. *HANDLING PROPERTY OF D.O.A'S.* Present procedures unsatisfactory which deal with the receiving and processing of property from DOA's at ACH.

216. *STATISTICAL EVALUATION OF JUVENILE PROBLEMS.* Develop comparative data relating juvenile prob-

A Collection of Methods and Techniques for the Patrolman

Field Interrogation

The author outlines a sound field interrogation program that can greatly accelerate the solution of many crime mysteries. Designed as a READY REFERENCE for the individual patrolman, an EXCELLENT TEXT for classroom use, and as a GUIDE TO THE POLICE ADMINISTRATOR who is initiating a field interrogation program within his organization.

CONTENTS

- Selection of Subjects for Field Interrogation
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- Recognition of Criminal Traits
- Documents of Identification
- The Interrogation
- The Search
- Recording Field Interrogations
- Instituting a Field Interrogation Program

By

ALLEN P. BRISTOW, Sergeant

Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

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Springfield • Illinois

lems in Oakland to the Los Angeles information provided by Capt. Sturm.

217. *STATISTICAL SECTION OPERATING COSTS.* Provide the City Manager's Office with up-to-date statement of the actual costs of operating the Stat. Section and the part of that cost allocated to the courts.
218. *INFORMATION BULLETIN—CHILD TRAFFIC INJURIES.* Prepare bulletin on above subject using stat. data provided by Traffic Division.
219. *SALE, LICENSING OF BICYCLES.* Review local ordinances dealing with the purchase and licensing of bicycles.
220. *FORM TO RECORD IMPROPER BOOKINGS.* Need for form to be used by Jail to inform P&R of improper bookings, i.e., one charge on the holding tag, another charge on the Arrest Report.
221. *PERSONNEL EVALUATION SYSTEM.* Determine the need for completely revising the present system of evaluating personnel.
222. *PLANNING & RESEARCH IN MUNICIPAL POLICE DEPARTMENT.* Present discussion of functions of P&R.
223. *BURGLARY PREVENTION PROGRAM.* Explanation of Burglary Prevention Program currently under way in Oakland Police Department.
224. *REPORT ON POLICE CLERK SICK TIME.* Present comparative data on amount of sick time taken by male and female police clerks who are assigned on an around-the-clock basis.
225. *REVIEW OF SECTION 3-5.08 OMC.* Determine the necessity of amending in order to make enforcement of same more realistic.
226. *RECOVERED VEHICLE REPORT FORM, GENERAL ORDER & AMENDMENTS.* Adoption of new form to police reports to be used when recovering hot cars.
227. *PICK-POCKET PREVENTION PROGRAM.* Rising crime rate for this offense indicates an extensive program of educating the public on the subject.
228. *ISSUANCE OF TRAFFIC CITATION BOOKS.* Write Chief's Memorandum setting forth the regulations of the Bails & Fines Office for issuing same.
229. *AUTO THEFT-PREVENTION & ENFORCEMENT.* Prepare article for publication by the Internat'l. Assoc. of Auto Theft Investigators on procedures now being used in Oakland.
230. *GENERAL ORDER TO GET OPERATOR'S LICENSE NO. ON ALL TRAFFIC ARRESTS.* This information vital on 502 VC arrests so that DMV files can be checked for prior convictions.
231. *GENERAL ORDER FOR PROCEDURE ON 5050'S.* Revise existing G.O. on handling 50-50's to comply with new procedures at ACH.
232. *DRUNK ARREST REPORT.* Determine possibility of having a separate report for all drunk arrests, advantages and disadvantages.
233. *REPORT WRITING MANUAL.* Complete revision of the existing manual to bring up to date.
234. *AUTOMATIC VS. CONVENTIONAL GEAR SHIFT.* Determine operating costs and advantages of the automatic transmissions as opposed to conventional transmissions in police vehicles.
235. *NALLINE BOOK.* Re-write Nalline Booklet.
236. *BAIL BONDSMEN, REGULATIONS GOVERNING.* Establish for reference purposes all laws, rules and regulations which govern the operation and conduct of Bail Bondsmen in the City of Oakland.
237. *AMBULANCES, DISPATCHING & UTILIZATION.* Write a General Order setting forth policy re: the dispatching and use of ambulances in a manner to assure rapid and satisfactory service.
238. *SENATE INTERIM COMMITTEE ON SECOND-HAND DEALERS AND AUCTIONEERS.* Submit a report and analysis of the proceedings of the first meeting of the subject committee.
239. *VEHICLE-LEASE CONTRACT.* Inquire into the possibility of making a lease contract arrangement with a local motor company for the provision of motorized equipment.
240. *BLOCKADE-QUADRANT SYSTEM.* Determine if such a system is practical and workable in our city.
241. *OPINION OF D.A. ON P.C. 821 and 1276.* Establish the authority contained in these Sections insofar as liability for false imprisonment is concerned.
242. *DAILY ACTIVITY REPORT-BUREAU ORDER.* Clarify instructions of report and bring up to date.
243. *PROPERTY AND EVIDENCE CONTROL.* Survey the operations of the Property Clerk's Office and determine need for revised procedures.
244. *REVOCATION OF PERMITS AND LICENSES.* Establish an ordinance for the purpose of adding the authority to revoke a permit or license issued by the City of Oakland as a result of the investigations of the Police Department.
245. *POLICE POLICY RE: REPOSSESSIONS.* Establish suitable policy to guide officers who are summoned to stand by for a repossession.
246. *BLOOD ALCOHOL TESTS FOR MINORS.* Review ACH policy of refusing to give any medical treatment to minors without written consent of the parents to determine if this should actually include blood alcohol tests of minors arrested for drunk driving.
247. *LETTER TO 290 REGISTRANTS.* Prepare form letter to be used to notify these people to register.
248. *CHECK PREVENTION PAMPHLET.* Prepare pamphlet setting forth the precautions merchants should take before cashing checks.
249. *PUNCH CARD ASSIGNMENT REPORT.* Develop a card type Assignment Report for the purpose of simplifying the filing and punching of information received on Assignment Reports.
250. *REVISE TRAFFIC ACCIDENT REPORT.* Revise format to provide more up-to-date information and simplify the type of information required.
251. *AUTHORITY TO TOW VEHICLES.* Survey entire problem of towing vehicles.
252. *COUNTY BILLING PROCEDURE.* A statement and redesign of billing procedure for County demand on the City for the care and maintenance of prisoners.
253. *PROCEDURE—ROBBERY ALARM CITY HALL.* Develop workable procedures and utilization of available man power in the event of a robbery alarm in the Treasury, Street Department, Credit Union, or Bails and Fines Offices in the City Hall.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of seven reports covering planning and research projects completed or in progress in a number of American Police Departments. The first report appeared in the July-August issue of POLICE.*

Doctor William Dienstein, Editor

Jan Marks, M.D.: DR. PURGATORY, The Citadel Press, 222 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, New York.

This is an autobiography type account of personal drug addiction by a physician, "Jan Marks, M.D.," and is an engrossing story of the personal tragedy of drug addiction and attempts at recovery.

Dr. Marks became addicted to opiates, demerol first, when as a young resident doctor in a TB hospital he commenced the self-administration of narcotics to relieve the pains of gout. Influencing him to this act was his recollection of the pleasant effects of demerol when administered to him in the course of minor surgery earlier in the year. In these simple statements we have a whole sermon on the dangers of the opiates.

Dr. Marks continued with his self-administration. In a few weeks he was well addicted and building up his dosage to an alarming degree. Inevitably, his addiction was discovered by other doctors on the staff. He was placed in a private room in the hospital, the drug withdrawn, and in a very short period he was released and his services with the hospital terminated.

Continuing in medical practice, Dr. Marks in the next six years reverted to narcotics half a dozen times, supplying himself from hospital stocks or patients' supplies in the institutions where he worked or on order forms or on prescriptions when he was in private practice. Each time his addiction brought about such deterioraton that the fact was disclosed and "cures" forced on him. These ranged from dubious electric shock treatment in a private sanitarium to detention in mental hospitals. Finally, between 1955 and 1957 he spent two periods in the U. S. Public Health Service Hospital at Lexington, between which was interposed a short stay at a Florida State Hospital.

If for nothing else, this book should be read by all medical students and nurses, hospital administrators and pharmacists, and others handling narcotics for the admonition of the wise physician to the already "hooked" Dr. Marks. "Doctor, aren't you aware of the eleventh commandment which forbids that a physician ever administer the first dose of a narcotic to himself?" The knowledge this book will give of the details of opiate addiction is important to those whose duties give them responsibility for the handling of narcotics. It may serve to dispel the sometimes too prevalent notion that "It can't happen here" and it may help to inculcate the more realistic theory that where the opiates are present "someone is always watching" for an opportunity to purloin or divert. All enforcement, parole, and probation officers and social workers having anything to do with the control of narcotics and the enforcement of narcotic laws or the rehabilitation of addicts can read this volume with profit. Because of its extensive attempts at self-justification the book may not be exactly a clinical document; it is no less valuable if that is recognized.

Sherwood Norman: DETENTION PRACTICE, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1790 Broadway, New York, 1960, Price $2.50.

The grim picture of children detained in jails, lock-ups, and make-shift detention homes throughout the nation has changed to a new type of care which begins rehabilitation immediately after arrest. This finding was announced today by Sherwood Norman, director of detention services for the National Council on Crime and Delinquency (formerly the National Probation and Parole Association), reporting on a fifteen-year study of the detention of juveniles.

The report, *Detention Practice*, financed by a grant from the Field Foundation, indicates that over 100 recently constructed, specially designed detention homes have replaced jails and jail-like facilities for children; that school and recreation programs in detention homes are now being planned for short-term diagnosis and therapy—not "just to keep the kids busy;" that there is an increasing use of individual and group guidance.

Over fifty programs are described from direct observation after visits to detention homes of all sizes in all parts of the country.

"There is nothing coddling about these programs" the report states. Youngsters are helped to face up to their problems squarely by professionally trained staff such as found in the Essex County Youth House in Newark, New Jersey and other communities.

Detention homes today are attractive but escape proof. Far more space is provided for activities during confinement. Mr. Norman reports that detention buildings are leading the way toward a new type of design for children's institutions. Among the buildings singled out for description are the new detention facilities in Detroit, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Milwaukee, St. Paul and Eugene, Oregon.

Public schools and recreation programs in detention homes, seldom found fifteen years ago, are planned to bring out the child's strengths as well as his weaknesses; reports on each youngster go to the court in order to throw light on the best way to help the child work out his underlying problems. Detention home school and recreation programs in New York, Detroit, Denver, Roanoke, Dallas, San Leandro, and Los Angeles are among those described.

While these and many other advances are reported, children in most counties are still being held in county jails for lack of district detention homes. Only Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maryland, and Delaware offer regional detention service to groups of counties too small to provide their own detention homes.

Detention Practice points out that while great strides have been made in the detention of juveniles, two serious problems remain unsolved:

1. More effective control of detention admission by the court. (New detention buildings invite excessive, improperly controlled use.)
2. State responsibility for standard-setting, coordination, and operation of regional detention homes.

The Proceedings of the Criminal Law Institute held at the University of Tennessee College of Law in October 1958 have been published in the TENNESSEE LAW REVIEW under the title "Administration of Criminal Justice," Winter issue 1959. One section consists of a symposium on "Scientific Crime Detection." Other topics covered include "Trial of a Criminal Case," Criminal Responsibility and Mental Disease," "Appellate Review," "Comments," and "Casenotes." Outstanding persons contributed to the Institute. Copies of the issue may be obtained from The Tennessee Law Review Association, Inc., 1505 West Cumberland Avenue, Knoxville 16, Tenn. The price per copy is $1.50.

NEW LYMAN RELOADER'S HANDBOOK

"The most up-to-date, complete and lavishly illustrated ammunition reloading handbook ever." That's the way the Lyman Gun Sight Corporation describes their new handbook, due to hit sporting goods stores in July. Since this is the 42nd edition of their book, in continuous publication since 1890, they should be in a good position to evaluate its worth.

It's a shooter's bargain for only $2.00 a copy. Pick up your copy from sporting goods dealers anywhere in the nation . . . or, order direct from Lyman Gun Sight Corporation, Middlefield, Connecticut.

NEWS and ANNOUNCEMENTS

INTERPOL TO HOLD 1960 SESSIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

The International Criminal Police Organization will hold its 28th general assembly in Washington, D.C., October 10-15,15, it was recently announced. The group, composed of sixty-three member nations, will be meeting in the United States for the first time. INTERPOL, with headquarters in Paris, France, brings together in a formidable organization at the international level the police forces of the world in an effective approach to criminal offenders whose movements take them into more than one country. President of INTERPOL is Mr. Agostinho Lourenco of Portugal; Mr. Marcel Sicot of France is Secretary General.

AMERICAN ANTIQUE GUNS AND THEIR CURRENT VALUES

This is the 1960 or tenth annual edition of what is the best basic book in its field. It describes, classifies and gives the present value of every make and model of American pistol and revolver from flintlock through automatic, approximately 2,000.

Its information-packed pages have photographs and proof-marks to assist in identification. The 100 page book also contains a history of firearms, a dictionary of firearms and much other useful information.

Martin Rywell, the author has published 30 books on firearms and American history, and is an authority.

A compact and complete volume that is well worth the price of $1. Pioneer Press, Harriman, Tenn.

NEW SUPER SECUR WARE CATALOG

Aluminum Plumbing Fixture Corp. announces that their complete new Super Secur Ware catalog is now available.

The new Super Secur Ware catalog contains complete information on all the latest unbreakable fixtures, including new urinal and shower units, as well as the unique "Combination" fixture one

piece water closet-and-lavatory, and all standard models, including wall hung and flush valve types.

An interesting feature of the new catalog is a photo story shows what goes into the manufacture of unbreakable cast aluminum plumbing fixtures, which are so much in demand wherever conventional fixtures are subject to breakage.

Specification sheets on individual fixtures giving complete installation and roughing-in dimensions are also available.

SUPER SECUR WARE
c/o Aluminum Plumbing
Fixture Corp.
778 Burlway Road
Burlingame, California

STATION WAGONS TESTED BY POLICE FOR PATROL SERVICE

Four 1960 Dodge station wagons, specially equipped to double as ambulances, are making their debut in Detroit, replacing four patrol scout cars.

Inspecting one of the new Dodge station wagons are Supt. Louis Berg (left) of the Detroit Police Department, and Police Commissioner Herbert H. Hart.

The experimental use of the Dodg station wagons climaxes more than year of study and research by the Detroi Police Department. If the pilot proje is successful, department officials sa wagons may eventually be substituted fo half the scout cars now in use throughou the city.

Manufactured by Dodge to meet spe cifications set up by the department, th cars are manned by two trained and ex perienced police officers who recentl completed a refresher course in emer gency first aid.

The eight-cylinder Seneca wagons ar equipped with collapsible-type co stretchers and can carry two sick or in jured persons at one time.

Resusitubes, specially designed device for mouth to mouth respiration, also ar part of the equipment.

Each of the cars covers a regular scou car territory and handles normal polic calls as well as emergency runs, extend ing coverage into adjacent scout car area if necessary.

During its study of the use of statio wagons, the Police Department sent ques tionnaires to major cities throughout th country to gather information from ex perience gained in many of the cities Police personnel also visited several citie using similar equipment to determine th value and diversified use of wagons.

In announcing the experimental pro gram, Police Commissioner Herbert W Hart said: "The experience of othe cities merited further study by our de partment. If our pilot study proves suc cessful, the use of station wagons will no doubt be expanded."

To give the new Dodge vehicles as se vere a test as possible, they have been as signed to a precinct which covers mor than 200 square miles of the northeaster section of the city. The precinct also wa chosen because it has more ambulanc runs than any other precinct in Detroit.

PHYSICAL EXAM REQUIRED

Starting this month, a physical-exam certificate issued by a physician is re quired of new applicants for a driver license in Pennsylvania.

This is the first step under a new pro

EXAMINATIONS
for
CHIEF of POLICE
Seattle, Washington

$15,000 PER YEAR

INDEFINITE TENURE

For Applications
Contact the Mayor's Office, Seattle

Completed applications must be returned by September 12.

gram requiring all drivers in the state to have periodic physical check-ups. It is estimated that by 1962 the plan will be in full swing, calling for examinations every 10 years for persons up to 60, and every 5 years thereafter.

. . . MEDICAL NEWS, June 22, 1960

POLICE CODE OF ETHICS

Following a trend in the American police field, the Policemen's Association of the District of Columbia this month published a "Law Enforcement Code and Canons of Police Ethics" for distribution to law enforcement officers here, Pres. E. H. Ring announced. The seven-page booklet outlines standards of police conduct for both public and private life.

Forewords to the booklet were written by Metropolitan Chief Robert V. Murray; White House Police Chief Ralph C. Stover; and Park Police Chief Harold F.

The booklet begins with a "Law Enforcement Code of Ethics" and then goes into "Canons of Police Ethics," with these headings:

Primary Responsibility of Job; Limitations of Authority; Duty to be Familitr with the Law and with Responsibilities of Self and other Public Officials; Utilization of Proper Means to Gain Proper Ends; Cooperation with Public Officials in the Discharge of Their Authorized Duties; Private Conduct; Conduct Toward the Public; Conduct in Arresting and Dealing with Law Violators; Gifts and Favors; Presentation of Evidence; Attitude Toward Profession.

The forewards by the three Chiefs comment on the value of such a publication and stress the necessity of maintaining high standards by officers in order to better serve the public.

. . . POLICEMEN'S ASSOCIATION NEWS

POLICE PHOTOGRAPHER WINS AWARD

On the occasion of the fourth Annual Convention of the New England Police Photographers Association, Sergeant William R. Murphy, Identification Officer, Brookline Police Department, Brookline, Mass., was presented with a national award for "outstanding service to professional photography." The award was in recognition of his work in compiling court decisions bearing on the admissibility of photographs as evidence and experimental work in the use of color photography in police service. The New England Police Photographers Association was founded in Framingham, Mass., in 1956 and its membership now includes representatives from all New England states.

Left to right: Walter F. Schouler, Chief of the Ashland Police Dept., Ashland, Mass., founder and past president of the New England Police Photographers Assoc.; William R. Murphy, Sergeant, Identification Officer, Brookline Police Dept., Mass., recipient of the award; Bernard F. Hurley, Detective, Boston Police Dept., Mass., president of the Association.

FIRST NARCOTICS INVESTIGATION INSTITUTE HELD BY LOS ANGELES STATE COLLEGE

Los Angeles States College recently completed its "First Narcotics Investigation Institute," given on campus for five full days. The Institute was held from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. on five successive Tuesday, and was attended by 200 law enforcement officers (including parole and probation officers) from over 50 different jurisdictions in the Southern California area.

Objectives

The Institute was designed for two groups of law enforcement personnel:

1. Field officers without extensive training or experience in narcotics investigation who wished to have general training in the subject.
2. Experienced narcotics investigators who wished to review established methods, study new techniques of investigation, and learn about new drugs which are covered by recent narcotics legislation.

Emphasis was placed on practical information by the seventeen speakers who represented the Federal, State, County, and City Narcotic Enforcement Bureaus, Divisions and Units. Considerable attention was given to the mutual cooperation of governmental agencies in narcotics enforcement.

Planning Committee

A planning committee of eight members representing all levels of government, and the faculty of Los Angeles State College in Police Science and Administration, made preliminary plans for topics to be covered and designated persons whom they thought to be most qualified to speak upon a particular subject. The proposed speakers were contacted and outlines of their subject matter were obtained for printing and distribution to those attending the Institute. This proved to be of particular value by eliminating note-taking. Over 400 pages of printed material were distributed. One publication prepared by the District Attorney's Office of Los Angeles County on "Searches and Seizures" was issued in book form and consisted of 240 pages. The rest of the material on narcotics and the investigation thereof was three-hole punched for insertion into looseleaf notebooks.

In addition to the lectures, five outstanding films on narcotics were shown. All of the films were in sound and three of them were in color. Actual shots of addicts "kicking the habit" and "shooting the stuff" were depicted in the films. Of particular importance was a sequence

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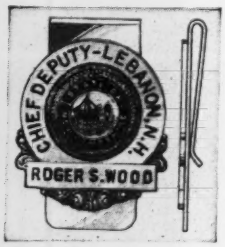

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covering the searching of an automobile, the person of suspects, and the living quarters of arrestees for hiding places for narcotics.

Other Institutes Planned

The success of this "First Narcotics Investigation Institute," as indicated by the favorable comments and attendance, has prompted Professor G. Douglas Gourley, Head of the Department of Police Science and Administration, to schedule future institutes in the areas of "Supervision," "Burglary," "Auto Theft." Two "Homicide Institutes" have been held and will be made an annual event, along with "Narcotics," on campus at Los Angeles State College.

. . . By Prof. John B. Williams

THE NEW COLT AR-15

The world's newest, most modern combat rifle—the Colt AR-15—began moving off the production lines today at Colt's Patent Fire Arms Manufacturing Company's factories in Hartford, Connecticut, it was disclosed by Fred A. Roff, Jr., president.

"Combining light weight, the accuracy of a sniper rifle, with the firepower of a machine gun (it will spit lead at the rate of 720 per minute), the weapon is slated to be the big news of the generation in

the small arms field," Roff declared. "Designed by the Armalite Division of Fairchild Engine and Airplane Corporation but manufactured with Colt's precision craftsmanship, the gun has fantastic potentials.

The new military weapon is unique in its versatility. It's a basic infantry weapon with full and semi-automatic fire control; it has the highest accuracy standards obtainable for a sniper rifle; it's compact and has the range and energy of a machine gun. It utilizes .223 caliber ammunition and has also been designed for the NATO 7.62 cartridge. Its exceptional light weight — 5 pounds 11 ounces with loaded 20-round magazine—permits the user to carry additional ammunition and its non-corrosive material make it safe from rust or dampness or even water submersion. The AR-15's straight line design minimizes recoil, holds the weapon on target when operated automatically.

Colt's master gunsmiths worked for exact precision on every detail of the Ar-15. An exemplification of their skills is the record time of six months in which the gun was put on the market.

POLICE ARE INSPIRATION

A policeman should be an inspiration to his fellow men because his work is an extension of the divine law, a bishop told members of the Worcester Police Department.

"You are the guardians and the protectors of the protectors of the law," said Bishop Bernard J. Flanagan of Worcester. "And since every man-made law is a reflection of the divine law, you are, in a real sense, protectors of the divine law."

Referring to the older members of the force, the Bishop said they were, "until recently, very much underpaid, but managed to scrimp and save and send [their] children to college, and to set an example of courtesy, Christian charity, and public and private rectitude for the community."

The Bishop told the policemen that although they "don't get a lot of praise and plaudits in public," they should not think their work is unappreciated.

Bishop Flanagan offered a Solemn Pontifical Mass for members of the department. At a coffee hour after the Mass he was presented an honorary police chief badge.

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NEW MOBILE TRANSMITTER MADE AVAILABLE

Described as the highest-powered transistorized two-way radio yet to be made available in small-case sizes, a new 100-watt vehicular communications unit has been announced by General Electric Communication Products Department, Lynchburg, Va.

The 100-watt mobile will be available in low band frequencies, 25 to 50 mc. It is the first transistorized unit in this power to be packaged in a case as small as four inches high, 8⅝ inches wide and 15 inches long.

Despite the increase in power, the new equipment draws only 1.75 amperes when "on" and ready to transmit. Standby drain (ready to receive a message) is only 40 milliamperes using a 2-watt speaker. This enables a driver to turn his vehicle's engine off and still hear his radio without installing special equipment to eliminate battery problems.

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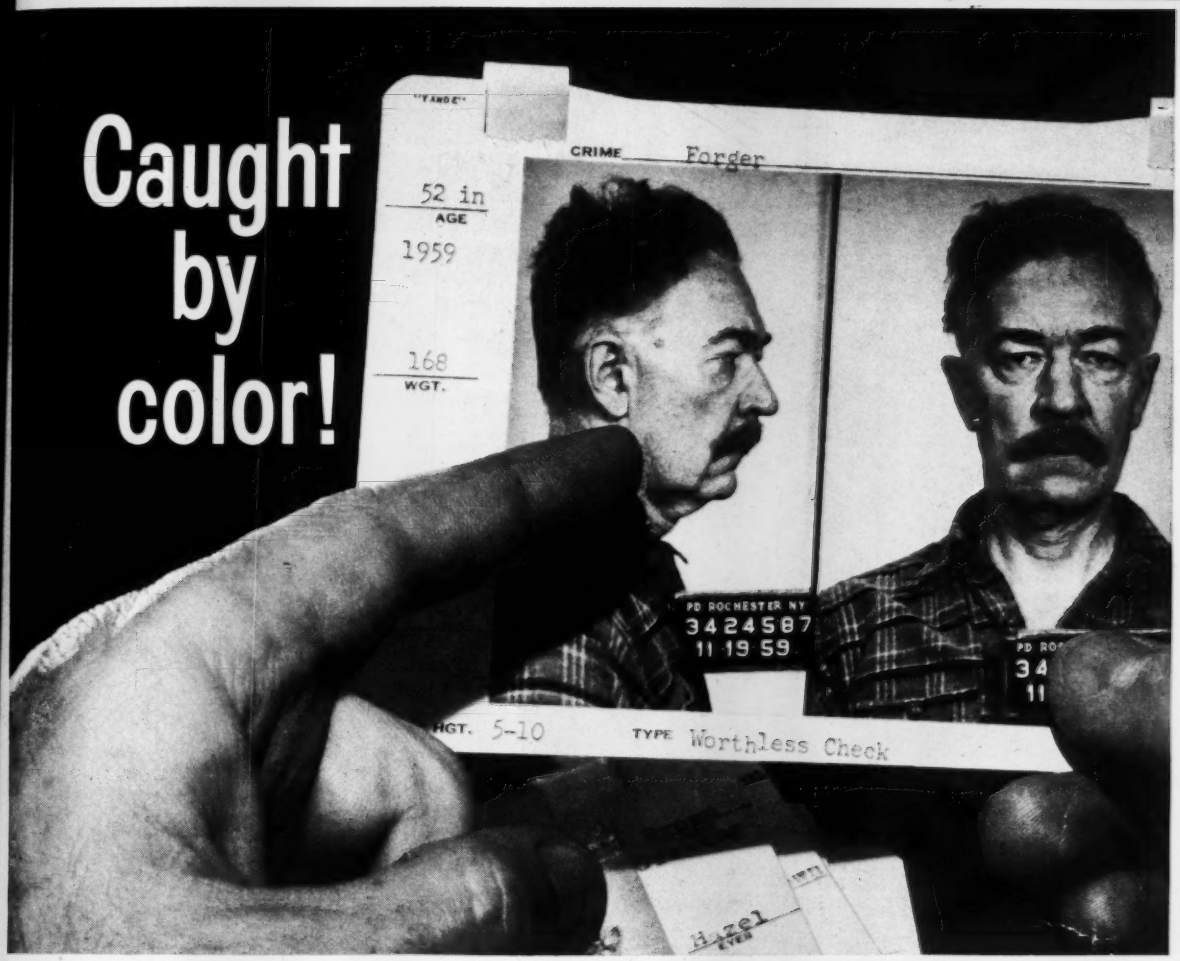

The suspect had an orange mustache. This is hard to identify in a black-and-white picture. But the witness was unmistakably sure when she saw his photograph *in color*.

Color identifies—it jogs the memory. It pins down a suspect's natural look.

A florid birthmark shows up. Steely gray eyes come to life. Hair shows its true color.

Color completes the picture.

Look who's using color for identification these days: The Nassau County Police Department, Mineola, Long Island, New York; the Winston-Salem Police Department, Winston-Salem, North Carolina; The Atomic Energy Commission —and scores of others. Color's practical for them and practical for you.

The film to use is Kodak Ektacolor Film. It gives you color *negatives*. Then direct from your Ektacolor negative, you get color prints. In any quantity. Any size.

Black-and-white prints, or enlargements, too, can be made from the same color negative.

And if you want to project your picture, in the courtroom, or in place of a line-up, you can make 2 x 2 color transparencies from the same color negatives.

Kodak Ektacolor Film comes in standard sheet sizes. 35mm and roll-film cameras use Kodacolor Film. Your color prints are made on Kodak Ektacolor Paper. Your black-and-white prints are made on Kodak Panalure Paper. And Kodak Ektacolor Print Film is used for making transparencies.

All these materials can be handled by you in your present darkroom.

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